The Outlook

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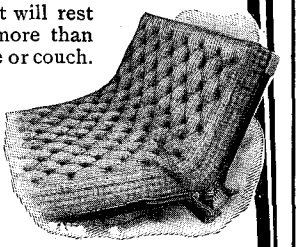

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, AUGUST 5, 1905

A Victory for Popular Rights

The Corrupt Practices Act passed by the Connecticut Legislature at the session recently closed is no plaything for reformers; it is a sharp instrument to be used against political highwaymen. The State which elected Morgan G. Bulkeley to the United States Senate needed such an instrument; but few people believed that the State would hammer it out for itself. Mr. Bulkeley openly opposed the bill; his opponent in the Senatorial election nearly succeeded in destroying it. Some of the younger practical politicians of the State, however, favored the bill, and it became law. The act provides for a detailed publication of expenditures of all political agents and treasurers as well as of candidates; it adapts to Connecticut statutes the most effective provisions of the English law according to which an election may be declared void by the courts after investigation and evidence of fraud. In those cases where, as in elections for membership in Congress or the Legislature, the court cannot constitutionally decide whether a candidate has been validly chosen, the act requires the court to find the facts and lay the evidence as judicially determined before the Governor. If it is a State officer who is found guilty, the Governor can then declare the place vacant; if it is a National office-holder, then the Governor is to place the evidence before the proper body, as, for instance, the Judiciary Committee of Congress. The act provides legal means for making these provisions effectual. Incidental to the main purpose of the act is a very important provision, proposed by the Rev. Dr. Newman Smyth, of New Haven, which will almost transform the method of criminal procedure in Connecticut. Heretofore the State Attorneys have not had power to initiate proceedings. This power has been practically confined to the three grand jurors in each town. Now this power is put into the hands of the State Attorneys, to whom any citizen can bring complaint. This law thus releases two forces which have hitherto been held in check: first, the nominally defeated candidate, who heretofore has had no chance, may now bring charges which, if proved true, will force "the defendant candidate" to "forfeit his office to his defeated rival, and be ineligible for any office for four years afterward;" second, the whole body of citizens are freed from the clumsy three-grand-juror system, and any one of them, or any corporation, can bring information concerning a suspected crime directly to the State's Attorney. Such a law as this is as truly an instrument on behalf of popular liberty as a bill of rights or a magna charta. It is a weapon against the most insidious form of tyranny—that of corruption.

❀

Wrong-doing in the Agricultural Department

The Outlook has already outlined the charges of misconduct and abuse of confidence for private gain by one or more trusted officials in the Agricultural Department. The belief that these accusations were well founded is strengthened by the fact that Holmes, the Assistant Statistician, who is directly charged with reprehensible conduct, last week secretly left the country, while his immediate superior, Mr. Hyde, the Chief Statistician, who had resigned under suspicion, has also, it is reported, left the United States just when he was expected, if he were beyond blame, to aid in the investigation. Now other improper if not criminal acts are charged against an employee of the Department in high standing. Professor George T. Moore has resigned from the Bureau of Plant Industry, and his resignation is undoubtedly the result of the public charge that he has maintained busi-

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ness connections through which his knowledge as a Government official was used for the benefit of an individual commercial concern. Professor Moore is a man of high scientific attainments, and has undoubtedly done much to make the Agricultural Department practically useful to the farmers of the country. Readers of The Outlook may remember that some months ago we summarized an extremely readable account by Mr. Grosvenor in the "Century" of Professor Moore's experiments with what he called "inoculating the soil"—a discovery by which certain kinds of plant life were made to flourish wonderfully by a process which greatly increased their tuberculous development, through which they receive and absorb nitrogen from the air. It is in connection with this very matter that charges are made against Professor Moore. In a letter to President Roosevelt, Mr. T. D. Harman, manager of the "National Stockman and Farmer," offered proof that employees of the Department of Agriculture were unduly interested in the sale of nitro-cultures to farmers at an exorbitant price. The evidence offered showed that Professor Moore, through his wife, had held stock in one of these companies, with the understanding that it should become his when he severed his connection with the Department and became the bacteriologist of the concern. Dr. Moore declares that he finally decided to stay with the Department, and that the stock was then no longer held by his wife. He adds that he gave no more favors to this company than to others, and intimates that his official superiors were informed of all the facts. Nevertheless, he admits that the criticism of his conduct made it desirable for him to resign, and his resignation was promptly accepted by Secretary Wilson. An interview between Secretary Wilson and the President has followed, and it is understood that the most thorough investigation of all matters having a suspicious character will be carried out at once. On another page will be found an article by the Assistant Secretary of the Department of Agriculture which shows in a most interesting way the variety and value of the services rendered by the Department of Agriculture to the people of the United States. No impartial reader of this article (written, we may add, before the recent disclosures of defects in the Department) can doubt that under Secretary Wilson the Department has increased in efficiency and has been in many different forms a means of instruction and suggestion to farmers and scientists alike.

❀

The Teamsters' Strike in Chicago: Ended

The teamsters' strike in Chicago has at last come to an end. After one hundred and five days of struggle, the distressing conflict was terminated by the Teamsters' Joint Council, by unanimous vote, on July 20. The strike was called off without any conference with the employers, and without any promises or concessions from them whatever. It was an unconditional defeat for the union. The employers would not even recede from their position that such of the strikers as might be taken back should refrain in the future from wearing the union button exposed. Shea and the other leaders involved are thoroughly discredited, and the once powerful teamsters' unions of Chicago are greatly weakened. As the readers of The Outlook know, charges were freely made at the inception of this strike that it was brought about, not for any proper labor reason, but for purposes of blackmail. Such being the case, it is perhaps not surprising that the most remarkable feature in connection with this strike has been the revelations of graft in labor matters growing out of it. As a result of charges and countercharges of dishonesty, made on the one hand by the employers and on the other by labor leaders, the Grand Jury took up the subject and made an investigation. Among others, John C. Driscoll was called to testify, and while it was the impression that he came far from telling all he knew, he revealed enough to create a sensation. Driscoll, a few years ago, was a small political worker, holding a low-salaried political position. He left that vocation to become a "Labor Commissioner," as he styled himself. He entered the service of various employing organizations, especially the teaming

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organizations. He cultivated friendly relations with influential labor leaders. His function as "Labor Commissioner" was to prevent strikes for the concerns that employed him. He did this, he admitted, by the use of money. But Driscoll entered a vehement denial to the charge that he had ever connived with labor leaders to foment strikes in order that they might be "settled" through the influence of himself and his associates. Driscoll took his check-book stubs before the Grand Jury in support of his statement that he had made payments to labor leaders, among whom he named President Shea, of the Teamsters' Union, and Albert Young, Shea's predecessor in office. Driscoll told in detail of many strikes that he had settled, and the amount of money paid out in each case.

❀

The Teamsters' Strike in Chicago: Criminal Prosecution Possible

Under the laws of Illinois it is not a crime to bribe a labor leader. So no indictments could be voted on this ground. But the Grand Jury, in its report made public on July 1, gave the names of many men whose honesty was called in question by the evidence secured. In some instances indictments based on the evidence were voted on the ground of conspiracy unlawfully to injure the business of another. This was true in the case of officials of the Illinois Brick Company, who were charged with bribing labor leaders to call strikes on rival companies. The labor leaders accused of accepting the bribes were indicted on the same ground. The Grand Jury report contained the statement, not only that "wrecking crews" had been paid for by men at the head of certain labor organizations, but that "sluggers during Driscoll's régime were employed by him, representing certain financial interests, to meet 'fire with fire' and 'slugger with slugger.'" Driscoll has not been connected with the labor situation in Chicago for some months now, but he told the Grand Jury that during the three years of his service he received from the interests he represented about $60,000, which amount was supposed to cover both his own compensation and his disbursements to others. A culmination of the "ring" political methods followed by a faction in the Chicago Federation of Labor was reached on Sunday, July 16, a few days before the teamsters' strike was called off. An election of officers for the Federation was in progress, when masked men entered, and, by threats of force, which included a display of revolvers, compelled the judges and clerks to surrender the ballots, which were forthwith destroyed. During the affair Michael Donnelly, head of the Packing Trades Unions, and generally regarded as an honest labor leader, was beaten by the invaders so severely that he had to be taken to a hospital. It is supposed that the violence was inspired by leaders of the element in the Federation which has been accused of dishonest practices in the past and which expected defeat at the election. This is the element with which Shea and the other labor leaders who have co-operated with Driscoll were affiliated. Although the State's Attorney's Office undertook to ferret out the matter, it has been unable as yet to discover the identity of the persons guilty of the outrage. These revelations and incidents have done even more than the absolute failure of the strike to discredit labor leaders and labor organizations.

❀

Secretary Taft in Japan

The honor which Japan has accorded to Secretary Taft and other official visitors accompanying him from the United States is a natural expression of the friendliness which the Japanese have felt for this country since the days of Commodore Perry. The Mikado granted an audience to the party and made the members his guests at luncheon; he, moreover, opened to them his private park, to which foreigners are rarely admitted. The official attentions to the American visitors have been accompanied with popular demonstrations. The "Japan Mail" goes so far as to say, "Not within our experience of over thirty years has Tokyo ever given such an ardent reception to any foreign visitor." Garden parties, banquets, entertainments, and display of day and night fireworks have marked every stage of

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their progress. This visit will undoubtedly strengthen the ties of friendliness that already bind the Japanese and the American peoples. It cannot fail, moreover, to have a happy effect upon the undertaking in which the visit is an incident. The prime purpose of the trip is to visit the Philippines, where Secretary Taft can decide certain questions that require his personal attention, and where the Senators and Representatives in the party can learn at first hand of matters concerning which they will be called upon to legislate. Such an introduction to the Orient, therefore, as this visit to Japan has afforded them, will undoubtedly promote that good understanding of the East which is essential to the work the United States has yet to do in the Philippines.

❀

Our Growing Foreign Trade

The export and import statistics for the fiscal year, just issued, afford interesting testimony to the increasing magnitude of our foreign trade and to its growing diversification. The total foreign commerce for the twelvemonth ending June 30 amounts to over $2,600,000,000, a substantial increase over the previous record year. This is due to new records both of exports and imports. For the first time in American history, exports exceed $1,500,000,000. The import record, over $1,100,000,000, is equally notable. In only one previous year has the value of imports exceeded a billion dollars. Though more than offset by the increase in exports of manufactures, the decrease in exports of wheat and flour seems none the less startling. The decrease comes, first, from the inadequacy of the domestic crop to furnish any considerable surplus over our own requirements, and, second, from unusually large crops in Argentina, Russia, and other wheat-producing countries. While corn exports improved somewhat over the small total of the previous twelvemonth, not for over three decades has the value, not only of wheat and flour, but of the total breadstuffs export, been so small as that recorded for 1904–5. This impressive feature of the past year shows, first, that our agricultural staples no longer hold the paramount position in American exports which they once did, and, secondly, that foreign consumers have not been willing to pay much higher prices for their supplies. They have obtained from other wheat-producing regions what we could not furnish, and it is to be noted that the price obtained for the comparatively small amount of wheat and flour which we did send abroad was but little higher than that obtained for our exports of those commodities in the years immediately preceding. In the face of this decline, the increase of merchandise exports gives evidence of the growing diversification of our foreign trade. The expansion in that trade of nearly a hundred million dollars is due almost entirely to the gratifying growth of our iron, steel, copper, and cotton goods exports. Of the two last-named commodities China has notably augmented her imports during the year; hence any "boycott" there would be specially regrettable. Turning to the import side, we note a smaller proportion of entries of manufactured goods and a larger proportion of manufacturers' materials, thus emphasizing American ability for self-support.

❀

Canada's Defensive Programme

Three years ago, at the Colonial Conference of 1902, Canada expressed her willingness to assume the cost and responsibility of garrisoning Halifax and Esquimault. The proposal arose from the discussion in England as to the burdens of imperial defense, in which, especially by contributions to naval support, it was clearly intimated to the colonies that it was their duty to join. Canada, however, has consistently refused to entertain a general scheme of imperial defense in which she would be expected to contribute *pro rata* with the other colonies and the mother country for the support of military and naval establishments unless accompanied by a corresponding control and direction. As apparently the simplest and most effective way in which she could share in the general burden and at the same time maintain control over the funds and forces she might supply, the offer

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in regard to Great Britain's two most important naval establishments on this side of the Atlantic was made. This proposal was again put forward in a more formal and direct manner January 20 last, and led to other interchanges of views upon the subject, and finally, last May, to proposals which have now been acceded to in every important detail by the British Government. By the new arrangement, which is to take effect September 1 next, Canada will assume all the financial and military burden of maintaining Halifax and Esquimault, the only point yet left undetermined being as to the final disposal of the present British garrisons. The latter are given permission to accept service under the Dominion Government, and it is probable that they may do so temporarily, Canada's purpose being eventually to garrison the forts with her own soldiery, and, in short, to assume full financial and military responsibility for her own defense so far as the army is concerned. Sir Frederick Borden, Canada's Minister of Militia, is not only planning to put Canada upon a self-dependent basis in regard to the forts mentioned, but he is also ambitious of perfecting further means of defense. In his opinion, the assumption of the defenses at Halifax and Esquimault is merely an earnest of what the Dominion ought to do. Speaking at a dinner given at Aylma recently by the officers of the Governor-General's Foot Guards to the Thirty-seventh Peterboro Rangers, Sir Frederick remarked that the best service Canada could render the Empire would be to equip the defenses of the Dominion as thoroughly as possible, and relieve Great Britain of military burdens on this continent. In his opinion, it would be desirable to have in Canada a chain of military depots from the Atlantic to the Pacific, with forts established between the strongholds at Halifax and Esquimault along the southern border, and he also stated that it would be his policy to create these forts—a statement which, of course, under the circumstances, probably brought down the glasses upon the tables with corroborative applause. In other pronouncements the Minister of Militia has since shown that he is in earnest in the matter. Big guns and rifles have been ordered, and it is the intention to establish manufactories for guns and rifles and all manner of explosives. Of course it is natural that Sir Frederick should be enthusiastic upon the subject, but with a peaceful neighbor upon the south it seems scarcely possible that Canada will indorse a policy which would at least indicate grave distrust of the peaceable intentions of the United States.

❀

The Japanese Advance in Siberia

Japanese forces, under naval protection, have occupied Russian territory in Siberia, thus carrying forward the far northern advance begun by the occupation of Saghalien. The point seized in Siberia is about seven hundred miles north of Vladivostok, and is near the narrow strait between the mainland and Saghalien. The nearest town is called Alexandrovsk. A Russian force was encountered and it offered some resistance, but was driven back, while the Japanese occupied several villages and captured a large quantity of coal and railway supplies. A despatch to Tokyo also reports fighting on the island of Saghalien, with some resistance by the Russians and confused street fighting in the town of Rykoff. The Japanese declare that the Russians had the rather surprising number of five thousand infantry and twelve guns, and that the Japanese forces killed two hundred and captured five hundred. This continued activity of the Japanese in and beyond Saghalien indicates a desire to have Japanese occupation of that island practically complete before the peace conference in the United States begins, and probably also indicates an intention of moving up the Amur River to a point whence forces can be interposed between the Russian main army and the route to Vladivostok.

❀

The Peace Negotiations

Last week Baron Komura, the senior Japanese peace plenipotentiary, arrived in New York, and Count Witte, the senior Russian plenipotentiary, set sail from Europe. When these eminent negotiators meet, we may expect at least

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more clearly defined views and a proposal of cleverer methods than some of those set forth in the supposed interviews with them and their secretaries printed in the daily press. Following the notice served on Russia and Japan by China that any action which may be taken at the peace conference regarding Chinese territory will not be recognized by it as valid unless that Government is first consulted, a communication to the State Department from the Korean Government last week notified this country of the attitude of Korea. This is almost identical with that assumed by the Chinese Government.

❀

A Russian Electoral System

Have the Russian bureaucrats come to their senses? The Government's plan just made public at St. Petersburg naturally raises this question. The plan comes almost like a response to the appeal made by the zemstvoists to all Russia. "It is time for the people to act," they say. "They must meet openly and discuss the best means for the attainment of reforms regardless of the frowns of the authorities. This is the way of peace. This alone will prevent the shedding of torrents of blood and save thousands of innocent lives. Against the expressed opinion of the united nation no amount of illegality or the arbitrary exercise of authority can prevail." The reports at hand are too fragmentary to admit of a clear idea of the Government's plan in detail, but the following seem to be its principal points: Soldiers, persons under the age of twenty-five years, foreigners, Governors and Vice-Governors of provinces, prefects and police authorities, nomads, and persons deprived of civil rights are excluded from the franchise, as are women except under certain qualifications, in which case they will have a vote to be delegated to a husband or son. For St. Petersburg, Moscow, and the larger towns the voters must be owners of land and house property exceeding three thousand rubles (about $1,500) in value. For the provinces a property qualification of only fifteen hundred rubles is required. The elections for the national assembly are to be by secret ballot, and an absolute majority is necessary. The assembly may select its own officers, including its president, and may discuss any matters of a legislative character. Finally, the Committee of Ministers actually recommends that the assembly be authorized to examine all appointments to the different Ministries and to put questions to Ministers on affairs within its jurisdiction! That such a scheme should be proposed by the Russian Government is perhaps the most impressive evidence yet at hand of real political progress where despotism has so long prevailed.

❀

Sweden and Norway

Last week the Swedish Ministry resigned. When the Norwegian Storthing, or Parliament, proclaimed the secession of Norway from Sweden, Oscar II., the King of both countries, convoked the Riksdag, the Swedish Parliament, and explained to that body that, while Norway's secession was unjustifiable, a continuation of the union between the two countries could hardly be maintained except by force, and that such a union was not worth maintaining. The Government, in presenting its bill of procedure, consented to the appointment of a joint committee from the First and Second Chambers of the Riksdag. Last week the committee reported against ratifying the Ministerial programme in its original form. In the committee's judgment, dissolution ought not to come because the Storthing demands it, but only when the Riksdag shall signify its willingness to negotiate with Norway. That will take place when a newly elected Storthing requests a repeal of the Act of Union, or when the Norwegians by a plebiscite have declared in favor of a dissolution. The committee's further recommendations are that Sweden shall insist on the following terms:

First—The establishment of a zone on each side of the frontier separating the kingdoms, within which the existing fortifications shall be razed and new fortifications may not be erected.

Second—The right of pasturing reindeer belonging to Swedish Laplanders in Norway.

Third—That the transit trade through both countries shall be secured against unjustifiable obstruction.

Fourth—That the status of Sweden in

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respect to foreign Powers, as established by treaty, shall be clearly defined, so that Sweden shall be completely freed from responsibility for Norway to other States.

If such a satisfactory agreement can be reached, the committee recommends Sweden's assent. The Storthing has now fixed August 13 as the date for the submission of the question to the people of Norway. Thus the Ministerial crisis seems one almost of form rather than of principle, of detail rather than of aim and end. It would be a pity, however, if the Liberal Ministry, now out of office, should be succeeded by a Conservative body representing the views of the reactionaries.

❀

The Monarch and the People in Hungary

The Hungarians find their present electoral system unsatisfactory. They find a common customs tariff with Austria more unsatisfactory. Most unsatisfactory of all, however, to them is the use of the German tongue in the word of command in their contingent of the Austro-Hungarian army—it is a humiliating denial of their national existence. The coalition party representing this threefold discontent has been in the majority since the January elections. The Austrian Emperor, as King of Hungary, recognized the consequences of the electoral victory, but none of the coalition leaders summoned by him could take office under a monarch who rejects the party's programme to replace the German language by the Hungarian or Magyar, to revise the electoral system, and to institute a separate Hungarian customs tariff. Hence, Francis Joseph is attempting to govern by means of a temporary Cabinet under Baron Fejervary, which shall carry on the business of the country until he and Parliament come to some agreement. Meanwhile taxes must be paid and recruits enlisted. Hungary has now been for several months without authorization for the budget. Parliament, swayed, of course, by the majority, has not adopted the necessary bill, and, according to the Constitution, imposts under the budget do not have to be paid until this bill is passed. The yearly recruiting bill also has not been passed, and the Imperial army will soon have to go short of its regular yearly quota of men from Hungary. In default of Parliamentary legislation the Prime Minister has not attempted to collect payments by force, but he has issued a manifesto in which he urges the nation to pay the taxes of its own free will, and appeals to the young men who have to serve the army to enroll themselves of their own accord. In its turn, the coalition majority issued a manifesto recently attacking the Fejervary Cabinet, existing in defiance of the majority, as unconstitutional, and holding that it is acting unlawfully. It is the duty of all good citizens, the manifesto says, to refrain from paying taxes, rendering military service, or otherwise obeying the Government's mandates. The manifesto is also addressed to the municipal officials, warning them not to perform the duties laid down by the State authorities, and promising that any official dismissed for failure to perform said duties shall be reimbursed by the constitutional government when it is finally formed. Last week Baron Fejervary himself addressed the municipalities by means of an official circular. He justifies the existence of his Cabinet on the ground that the King's government must be carried on, even though the parliamentary majority refuse to accept office. He warns the civic authorities against pursuing a course likely to plunge the country into anarchy. He declares that the Government will annul all administrative orders of municipalities by which obstacles are put in the way of the voluntary payment of taxes or the enlistment of recruits. The majority of Magyars believe that, by reason of the present deadlock, Hungary will ultimately emerge an independent nation. Many observers outside Hungary, however, still cling to the opinion that the best interests of the kingdom will be conserved by some alliance with Austria rather than by a severance from any alliance.

❀

The Dissolution of Parliament and Redistribution

Two weeks ago the British Government was caught napping in the House of Commons and defeated by a majority of three. Last week it showed its

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real strength. By a vote of 239 to 176 the House refused to permit Mr. Winston Churchill to introduce a bill limiting the life of Parliament to five instead of seven years, the present statutory limit. Mr. Churchill explained that his proposed measure would give fuller popular control of the executive. He claimed that there was a growing diminution of Parliamentary authority over the Government, and that a mechanical arrangement involving more frequent appeals to the country would be advantageous. As a matter of fact, a Parliament rarely lives out its allotted term. The present Parliament is not quite six years old. It may legally remain in office until the autumn of 1907. It will be dissolved by its natural death, by the sovereign's will, or, as has been usual, during a recess by proclamation. Premier Balfour desires to remain in power and to defer a dissolution of Parliament because he wishes to enter upon a campaign for redistribution of Parliamentary seats, a measure on which he could go to the country with dignity and influence. During recent years the relative populations of the three divisions of the United Kingdom have become altered so that now, while England and Wales have one representative for about sixty-eight thousand inhabitants, Scotland has one for about sixty-four thousand inhabitants, while Ireland has one for less than forty-three thousand inhabitants. The King's speech opening the present session of Parliament included this statement: "Your attention will be directed to proposals for diminishing the anomalies in the present arrangement of electoral areas, which are largely due to the growth and movement of population in recent years." Mr. Balfour, who undoubtedly has had special reasons for not pressing this measure before the present time, now announces that, according to the precedent of 1867, when a similar measure was considered, a redistribution bill will be introduced at the next session of Parliament, the interval being filled by a Royal Commission which shall arrange the new electoral boundaries. The Government scheme is to retain the present number—670—of members of Parliament, representing the county, borough, and university constituencies of the United Kingdom, but to make the unit of population, say, sixty-five thousand. Under this plan Ireland, because of the shrinkage of population, would lose twenty-two seats, and these would go, one to Wales, four to Scotland, and seventeen to England.

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The Tariff Issue in England

Mr. Balfour's political motive is evident. By concentrating their attention on one subject, about which most are agreed, he hopes to divert the attention of his followers from the much-discussed tariff features about which they differ. The proceedings in the House of Lords last week revealed these differences. The Duke of Devonshire, formerly a member of the Cabinet, proposed a resolution opposing any tariff or colonial preference based on the taxing of food. Another statesman of weight, the Marquis of Londonderry, Lord President of the Council, announced that, while he supported the Balfour policy of a retaliatory tariff, he would resign if there should be any question of a taxation on food. This question seems to have been, however, already answered by Mr. Chamberlain in his recent speech before the Tariff Reform League, in which he declared that his protective policy "almost necessarily involves a small tax upon wheat." He claimed, however, that, at the very worst, such a tax would increase the price of the loaf by less than a half-cent. Mr. Chamberlain declared that the kind of protection which he favored would "find employment for British labor," bring "a great and increasing revenue," and also encourage an ever-augmented proportion of colonial imports to come in untaxed. He argued that "we are now face to face with a policy which is guiding our manufacturers to carry their capital and their machinery abroad, and to be unable to find any work for British labor." He did not add, however, that the first half-year of 1905 shows an increase in British exports over the half-year of 1903, when he first began his crusade, of some $65,000,000. Mr. Chamberlain would find employment for British labor; hence

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foreign goods must be kept out, and British manufacturers be given a chance. He would have "a great and increasing revenue;" hence foreign goods must be let in under a tariff. But we do not understand how the policy of an increasing revenue from foreign taxed imports fits in with the encouragement of an ever-increasing proportion of colonial untaxed imports. Mr. Chamberlain's speech was greeted by perhaps the greatest audience that ever filled Albert Hall, and one which showed unwonted enthusiasm. It was an impressive evidence to free-traders that England is now face to face with an astute and stubborn effort to establish the policy of protection in the very stronghold of free trade. Mr. Chamberlain said, "We shall not retreat one step; we shall not relinquish any one of the essential attributes of our policy. We have set alight a torch which all the puny efforts of our opponents cannot extinguish."

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The Paganizing of American Life

The report that Dr. Ludden, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Syracuse, has announced that he will deny Christian burial "to those who die by accident on the Lord's Day, having culpably violated its duties and obligations," and that the Hon. Andrew D. White has written him a letter indorsing his action, needs correction. The report is due to a perhaps not unnatural failure to recognize a real and important distinction, drawn by the Bishop and recognized by Mr. White, between Christian burial and "the honors of Christian burial." Christial burial is not refused even to those who absent themselves from worship in the morning and lose their lives in questionable amusements or in places of doubtful respectability; but to such are refused "the honors of Christian burial" —that is to say, burial with full ceremony in the cathedral, or perhaps other church, previous to ordinary Christian burial. This distinction, says Dr. White, "seems to me thoroughly well taken, and will, I believe, set large numbers of thinking men and women into trains of thought on this subject which will be profitable, not only to themselves, but to the country at large." We do not know that this distinction is definitely recognized by other churches than the Roman Catholic. But whether or not the Bishop's method of dealing with the evil is practicable in other churches, The Outlook heartily sympathizes with the object which Bishop Ludden has in view, and with the spirit and purpose of Dr. White's letter of protest against what he well calls "a complete paganizing of American life as regards the first day of the week." What he says on this subject is all the stronger because of the moderation with which he expresses himself. He says:

> Although I was brought up under Puritan ideas as regards Sunday, and they have had considerable effect upon me, they have been so far modified by observation and reflection that I am quite willing that the afternoon of Sunday, after the earlier religious services are over, shall be given to reasonable rest and recreation, beyond, indeed, what I formerly thought wise. But the extremes to which our communities have gone of late in appointing every sort of game and amusement through the morning hours, and of making Sunday resorts less and less decent, are such as to create just alarm among all thinking citizens.
>
> It was under this conviction that I observed the very bold and noble stand which you have taken, and I cannot but think that it will exercise a most beneficial effect far outside your own diocese, and, indeed, beyond the limits of your own communion.

It is not primarily by Sunday legislation, it is primarily by a more healthful public opinion, that this process of complete paganizing of our American life is to be stopped; and the action of Bishop Ludden and the letter of the Hon. Andrew D. White are valuable aids toward the creation of such a public opinion.

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The American Academy of Art in Rome

The recent gift of a hundred thousand dollars by Mr. Frick, the Pittsburg steel capitalist, completes the million-dollar endowment fund of the American Academy of Art in Rome. The Academy had its beginning in 1894. As the national competition in France for the Grand Prix de Rome raised the tone of that great French architectural school, the École des Beaux-Arts, so, it was believed, an American National

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competition for such a prize would increase the efficiency of our own schools. Rome was chosen for the seat of the Academy in order that American students could have opportunities for an art education equal to those provided there for students from other countries. "The American School of Architecture in Rome" was supported by a number of our architects who were engaged conjointly in the work of the World's Fair at Chicago, and also by such benefactors as those architects could interest. The students were selected by competition. But the promoters of the enterprise became convinced that its scope should include the allied arts, at least of sculpture and painting, and in 1897 the American Academy at Rome was incorporated under the laws of the State of New York. Four years afterwards, the late John Hay, Secretary of State, authorized the American Ambassador at Rome to accept the position of trustee, ex-officio, of the Academy, and directed him to secure for it all the privileges and exemptions accorded by the Italian Government to the similar institutions there of other countries. The Academy's aim was not so much to afford exceptional advantages to selected students, as through them to raise the general standard of art education in America. The conveniences for work were sadly in contrast with those offered by the older and well-equipped similar institutions of other nations, by the French in particular at the historic Villa Medici, where prize students in architecture, sculpture, painting, and music are brought together under the same roof in constant and helpful intercourse with one another. But the work of our Academy justified its existence and ultimately led to an effort on the part of influential artists and art patrons to raise a fund, the completion of which is now announced. Last February the Academy was incorporated by act of Congress. Post-graduate courses for architects, sculptors, painters, and musicians are now provided. The beneficiaries are chosen every year by competition from advanced students in the United States. The course of study during the prescribed term of three years also includes some travel in Italy and other countries. The efficient director at Rome is Mr. George W. Breck, and for the present the Academy is located in the famous Villa Aurora. Established on a new financial foundation, and wisely conducted, the Academy should be a credit to the world of art.

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Educational Reciprocity

While such schools as the above and the American Schools of Archæology at Athens and Rome testify to the desire of our people to absorb in Europe what cannot be obtained at home, the development of reciprocal educational advantages is a more characteristic sign of the times. Between Germany and America its manifestations are noted in the Emperor William's movement toward sending professors to this country in return for similar favors from us, and between France and America in Baron de Coubertin's foundations for the study of French literature at a number of our universities, in Duc de Loubat's foundation at the Collège de France for the study of American antiquities, in the Hyde foundation under which Professor Barrett Wendell has been lecturing at the Sorbonne, and, lastly, in the course of lectures by Mr. Charles F. Beach, Jr., at the University of Paris Law School on the History of American Law, with special reference to commercial and banking law. Mr. Beach's lectures may have wide influence, as the Paris Law School has about five thousand students, seven times as many as at the largest institution of the kind in America. It is proposed to continue these lectures next year, for the first half at the universities of Paris and Lille, and for the second half at Bordeaux and Toulouse. In this way, not unusual in France, four courses will be given during the year at four of the chief universities, and, of especial importance to us, in cities where the commercial relations with America are extensive. Up to the present Mr. Beach's lectures have been the result of his own generosity, but, as he cannot longer afford it, there is an opportunity for some benefactor to insure their permanency. He may be addressed at 87 Nassau Street, New York City.

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Sea Breeze: The President's Visit

The President of the United States visited Sea Breeze at Coney Island last Friday. We condense the account of his visit from the pictorial report of it published in the New York "Sun:"

This institution is the hospital established by the New York Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor for children crippled by that dreadful disease tuberculosis of the bone. And the work that the sunshine and the breezes blowing in from the ocean are doing for these little tots was helped along mightily yesterday by the visit of the President. . . . Just how the President came to make this sudden and unexpected descent on the Island is an interesting story. As it was told yesterday, he had his attention called to the institution by a letter in The Outlook signed "L. W.," in which an appeal was made for financial aid. While there are over four thousand children in the tenements supposed to be suffering from this form of consumption, the hospital accommodates only forty-six. The letter was written by a Miss Laura Winnington, who was dying in a hospital. It stirred up the President and it stirred up others. Miss Winnington died a few days ago, but before she died she heard that one man had given $25,000, and that to this Jacob H. Schiff had added $5,000. The President corresponded with his friend Jacob Riis, and others interested in the hospital, found out just where it was, and said he would like to visit it. . . .

The President wanted to go all over the hospital. The beds were snowy white, and the fresh sea breeze and the sunshine seemed to reach every nook and cranny. "I wouldn't have missed this for all the world," he said. Outside in the grove were the mothers and children of the fresh-air department. As the President appeared on the porch the children started singing spontaneously. It was all sorts of tunes at first, but after frantic attempts the mothers and nurses finally got them all singing "My Country, 'tis of Thee." The President clapped his hands. "Fine!" he said. "Keep it up." Some of the mothers almost dropped their babies in their excitement. "I never thought I could get such a good look at him without being pushed back by the cops," said one woman, holding her baby high up above the crowd so that the child could see the President too. The police and detectives had all been left at the door, and there was nothing to obstruct the view. The President went around as though he enjoyed it as much as the mothers.

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Sea Breeze: The President's Interview

The President subsequently gave a dictated interview to the press, in which, besides telling how Miss Winnington's letter led to his visit to Sea Breeze, he gave to the institution and its work his warmest indorsement, from which we quote the following sentences:

The hospital has room for only forty-five children, and there are more than four thousand cases of bone tuberculosis in the tenement-house district of New York. The trustees are trying to raise a fund for a hospital which shall hold four hundred patients. The Fresh Air Fund people are obliged to refuse admission to two thousand or three thousand applicants annually. The sea-air treatment of bone tuberculosis has been found to be marvelously successful in France. Here, also, it has proved so successful that at the Sea Breeze Home they have not lost a single patient. All were benefited, and most of them were cured.

In one particular the account in the "Sun" needs supplementing. Miss Winnington should have been in a hospital when she wrote the Sea Breeze letter published in The Outlook for July 8, but in fact she was not. With a heroism born of self-forgetful devotion to others, she remained at her work in the office of The Outlook, for over two years hiding from her most intimate friends the mortal disease which was laying siege to her, and keeping it concealed until it could be concealed no longer. Perhaps her own combat with illness intensified her natural sympathy for the sick. The last important work of her life—a life of loyal service and joyous self-sacrifice for others—was her visit to Sea Breeze, in order personally to investigate it and write the description of what she had seen. Then she went to St. Luke's Hospital, not for cure, for of cure there was no possibility, but to die, cheered by the reflection that her service had secured the beginning of an endowment, and had been the means of calling the attention of the President to this noble charity. We hope that his appeal may complete her work by obtaining for Sea Breeze an equipment and endowment adequate for its needs.

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Stamping Out Yellow Fever

While it cannot be denied that the situation as regards yellow fever in New Orleans was serious last week, yet it is most encouraging to see how intelligent and thorough has been the campaign against the dreaded disease carried on by the health authorities and by the aroused

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people. Up to Monday of this week the total number of deaths reported was fifty-eight, the total number of cases two hundred and eighty-three. It is not exactly certain how the epidemic, if it may so be called, began; but there seems to be probability in the theory that it was brought by steamship from Belize or some other tropical port. It found a lodgment in the vile, overcrowded, unsanitary district around the French Market, chiefly inhabited by Italians. If it is true that the disease was brought in by ship, this indicates lax quarantine inspection; and the accounts given of the horrible condition of the quarter of the city where yellow fever gained ground indicate something more than laxity in municipal sanitation. There has been little spread of the disease outside the immediate vicinity of the French Market, and the few sporadic cases that have been found at some distance have been directly traceable to the foci where yellow fever was first found. One suspicious case appeared at Tampa, Florida, during the week, and there have been rumors of a few cases in Louisiana and Mississippi. A vessel arriving in New York from Colon, Panama, was found to have a few cases of fever (probably malarial fever rather than yellow fever) on board, but no danger is apprehended from this source. In point of fact, the public mind should be perfectly calm and assured as regards the probability of a general spread of yellow fever—and especially in Northern ports. It is now much more than a theory that yellow fever is communicated in one way, and one way only. This modern scientific theory of yellow fever was applied so thoroughly in Cuba, and with such absolutely satisfactory results, that to doubt its correctness would be folly. Yellow fever is communicated only by the bite of a mosquito of a not at all common species, when the individual mosquito of this species has previously bitten a yellow fever patient. This particular species of mosquito is not usually found in northern latitudes. From this definition of the origin of the disease it is clear that the right method of preventing the spread of yellow fever is to make it absolutely impossible for a yellow fever patient to be exposed to mosquitoes, and, secondly, to wage incessant war against the mosquitoes themselves. This has been the line of action in New Orleans. Last Sunday almost every minister and priest in New Orleans told his congregation how to help destroy the pest. Partly as a result of this and of other widespread agitation and teaching, hundreds of citizens have volunteered to clean gutters and streets, to pour oil on cisterns and stagnant pools, and to screen windows wherever found open in a house-to-house canvass. It is stated that ten thousand cisterns were screened last week and more than a hundred thousand gallons of oil used for protection. Quarantine against New Orleans is maintained by many near-by towns and districts in Louisiana and Mississippi and by Cuban ports, where yellow fever is now almost unknown. It is now believed that there is a strong probability that for the first time when the disease has been epidemic in New Orleans the city may completely stamp out yellow fever before the hot weather has passed and the frost has come.

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Charities and Correction

The programme of the National Convention of Charities and Correction, held at Portland, Oregon, July 15–22, is evidence that the society is more and more adapting its convention deliberations to local needs. Yet while the East, the Middle West, and California were well represented, the citizens of the Pacific Northwest—an immense territory with marvelous resources—were conspicuously absent. With an unusually strong corps of workers in attendance, this was pre-eminently a working convention. During the week two general meetings morning and evening and three section meetings were held daily. At the close of the opening address the President, Dr. Samuel G. Smith, of St. Paul, said: "It is part of our creed that there is enough capacity in man and sufficient sources of wealth in the world to produce adequate comfort for every man, woman, and child. It must, therefore, be our aim to seek such a high standard of efficiency that, by education, virtue, skill, self-control, and a wise social

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order, the things which have always been possible to poet's dream and prophet's vision shall at last become radiant fact in the domain of practical affairs." The presence of an unusual number of Juvenile Court judges made that subject a notable one. The main address of this section was given by the Hon. Ben B. Lindsey, of Denver, whose personality was recently described in The Outlook by Mr. H. J. Haskell under the title "The 'Kid Judge' of Denver." During the last winter many States have established Juvenile Courts, and some States have added adult responsibility laws. The tendency is not only to compel the home to do its duty, but to assist the home when, through misfortune, the child is becoming wayward. Among encouraging facts recorded was that of the establishment of special schools of philanthropy in different States, in which the personality and experience of the teacher are considered of prime importance. Treating the sick poor at home, warfare against tuberculosis, finances of hospitals, ambulance service, the care of the sick, the period of convalescence, and prevention of disease were topics ably presented. The general session in which the field of the visiting nurse, the visiting nurse as an economic factor, and the nurse in the public schools were among subjects considered, was one of the most fruitful of the week. The consideration of the German system of workingmen's insurance suggested several allied topics, and an absorbing economic discussion followed. It was asserted that no other country is so careless of the rights of the workingman as our own, and that the remedy to be sought is in an awakened public conscience. The topics and general trend of thought at the Portland meeting tended largely to a consideration of institutions of the State. Perhaps it might be said that the keynote of the Convention was State supervision and inspection. The eager contention of four large cities for the Convention next year ended in a victory for Philadelphia, and the Conference will probably convene in May. Dr. Edward T. Devine, of New York City, is the new President of the National Association.

Porto Rico and Self-Government

On July 21 a number of Porto Ricans met at San Juan to consider the question of representative government in the island. At our request, Bishop Van Buren, of Porto Rico, gives our readers on another page his estimate of the sentiment in the island which is behind this movement, and we believe that they can rely upon that estimate as intelligent, unprejudiced, and judicial.

At present the island is governed by a Governor and a Legislative Assembly. The Lower House of this Assembly consists of Delegates elected by the people; but the Upper House, which is called the Executive Council, is, like the Governor, appointed by the President of the United States. The legislative as well as the administrative branch of the Government is, therefore, under the control of the Federal Government of the United States. Of the eleven members of this Council, six are heads of departments, the remaining five being native.

The Porto Ricans who gathered in convention adopted a memorial to Congress calling for a change in the law which defines the government of the island. The memorial asks for no change in the method by which members of the House of Delegates are elected, but it complains of the power which is granted to an unelected Council. No legislation can pass the Assembly without the concurrence of this Upper House, the majority of whom are aliens. Concerning these the memorial says that they "arrive here knowing nothing of the language, customs, or needs of the country, and twenty-four hours after disembarking take their seats in the Executive Council and determine the fate of the island." The following amendments to the fundamental law of the island were proposed:

(1) The organization of an insular Senate, to be composed of two Senators each from seven districts, in place of the Legislative Council.

(2) That the proposed Senate and the House possess the same privileges granted to the House under the Foraker law.

(3) That the Secretary of Porto Rico, the Attorney-General, the Treasurer, the Auditor,

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the Commissioner of Education, and the Commissioner of the Interior continue in their present offices under their present titles, but that they form no part of the Executive Council.

(4) That the officials named be appointed by the Governor, with the consent of the insular Senate, and not by the President of the United States.

These amendments, it will be seen, would transfer practically all power except the administrative, and therefore all responsibility, from the United States to the people of the island.

Concerning the character of the members of this Convention we are not informed. We have no means of knowing what they represented beyond the fact that they are called "delegates" and are described as representing sixty-five out of the sixty-six municipalities of the island. Whether they represent these municipalities in any other sense than that they come from them does not appear. The fact, however, that the Convention was non-partisan in character, that its action is unanimous, and that the opinions expressed are in accord with a sentiment known to be widespread, entitles its memorial to a respectful hearing. Comparing the appeal of the Convention given above and Bishop Van Buren's letter, the reader can form his own judgment respecting the weight to be attached to the Convention.

Probably three causes have combined in producing it: some popular discontent due to real or fancied injustice under the present government; some racial impatience of foreign control and restless desire for independence; some eager desire by office-seekers for more offices, more salaries, and more control of public moneys. In so far as it is due to popular discontent, our Government should study to remove the causes of that discontent; in so far as it is due to racial impatience, it can be met only by greater tact and greater respect for local pride and local prejudices; in so far as it is an office-seekers' movement, it calls for the same sort of vigorous hostility with which patriotic Americans meet similar movements in America.

We see in the demands of the Convention little evidence of any popular complaint against practical injustice, nor does Bishop Van Buren indicate that there are any serious political wrongs to be corrected. The evils under which Porto Rico is suffering are industrial, and call for industrial rather than merely political remedies. They are partly due to the commercial revolution which has suddenly transferred her commercial relations from Europe to the United States. In the remedy for these ills time is an important factor.

There are those who hold self-government as in itself an end; they will be wholly sympathetic with this movement. The Outlook is not of that number. We hold that the end of government is protection of persons and property, the maintenance of peace and order, and such religious liberty and such an educational system supported by the State as give promise of the speediest intellectual and moral development of the community. Self-government is simply one means to this end; whether it is the best means depends upon the state of intellectual and moral development which the community has attained. That Porto Rico is now in condition for unqualified home rule is highly improbable; that there should be some extension of home rule is quite possible. Bishop Van Buren's suggestion of the appointment of a Commission to act as a mediator and interpreter between the Federal Government and the Porto Ricans appears to us admirable, and we hope that the Administration will adopt some such course.

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In God

The cardinal thought presented by St. Paul to pagan philosophers at Athens, that human life is lived in God, is not yet appropriated even by the Church. The tongue glides over that great text, "In him we live, and move, and have our being," as the traveler skims the sea unaware of what lies beneath. No two words that tongue can utter are charged with such potent truth for daily human needs, truth little used, as the two monosyllables, *In God*.

If that great saying is doubted, doubt

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soon finds it has no standing ground. The notion that human life can be outside of the divine contradicts the infinity of the divine. The finite must certainly be encompassed by the infinite. But one need not appeal to metaphysical and logical considerations, in which a trick of words might be suspected. Science, especially in her later researches, will be deemed by many to speak more convincingly. The firmness of our foothold on the earth testifies that we are ever in the grasp of that cosmical force of gravitation which the astronomer Herschel likened to the effluence of a Universal Will maintaining the universal order. The texture of our bodies itself tells a similar story. What gravitation is to masses, chemical affinity is to molecules, a binding force divine. And this is what holds together our bodies, five-sixths composed of water. Two atoms of hydrogen and one of oxygen in each molecule of water are thus held together in firm embrace. Were this holding force relaxed, on the instant our bodies would for the most part vanish into substance as invisible as air. Thus is our tent of flesh and blood not only constructed but daily reconstructed by the all-ensphering Power.

The inner processes of our life, both physical and mental, tell the same story of the Power not our own at work within us. All the sub-conscious operations that go on within—digestion of food, nutrition, circulation of the blood—are its operation. Our part is like that of the engineer who tends the engine, while the steam does the work. We talk, write, move about, do this or that; but what *we* do is merely to press the button which turns on the current of vital energy that is all of it *God's*. So when we tax our minds in thinking, the brain power we employ is his, not ours; the very forms in which we have to think—the so-called "categories" of cause and effect, etc.—are given us in the nature of things; but, as Augustine said, "The nature of things *is God*." We think, but so far as what we think is true, it is, it can be, no other than the thoughts of God.

The need of the man in the street and the problem of the philosopher in the closet are one and the same—to get back to the reality behind the appearance of things. Science, as now popularized, helps wonderfully to this. Nothing less than a divine revelation is its great discovery that the solid frame of Nature is not only made by intelligence, but itself *is* compact of Intelligent Energy. Suppose, said Lord Kelvin, a drop of water magnified to the size of the round earth; then the molecules composing the drop will be each of the size of a cricket-ball. But now Science has gone further and analyzed these molecules into electrons, seven hundred of them in each of the two atoms of hydrogen in every molecule of water. Now what are these inconceivably small elements that form water? Simply centers of Force in perpetual motion. And of such in various proportions is every other substance constituted. Thus the solid world, the universe, is found to be compact of active Force intelligently effecting an orderly progress of events. The qualities of what we call "matter"—its weight, immobility, resistance to touch—are only the manifesting of the Force that constitutes it. *Matter is Force, Force is Mind, Nature is Spirit*, are the affirmations that the newest Science brings to the ancient truth, "In God we live." And this is true not only of the world we all inhabit, and of the tabernacles of flesh in which we individually dwell, but also of the indwelling life we call our own. But "ye are not your own," said Christ's Apostle. And to him the agnostic philosopher bears witness, telling us that the Infinite and Eternal Energy of which the solid world is found to be compact constitutes also the conscious mind which thus analyzes the world and interprets its invisible reality. If the world in these latter days, in which men have been saying to Physics and Chemistry, "Be ye our gods," has grown to seem undivine, if the Great Companion, with whom men once walked and talked, seems to have left us to do with nothing but dead things, a clearer understanding of the teachings of Science may help to rediscover him, and to give us a world transfigured by his Presence. Thus an age of Science is bringing back the ages of Faith in more intelligent form.

In God also is our moral life, our

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quest for good, so often led astray by phantoms. Because we *live* in him, we inevitably *will* in him. Even the evil man's will is in God, no less than the good man's, and its painful experience of defeat and self-reproach and shame shows it encountering God's resistance, besetting it behind and before, as with a circle of fire out of which it cannot escape. Free, indeed, are we, but only as he is free to his righteous ends, and our joy in these is joy in him. We seek him because he draws us. Our prayers spring from his promptings. In our consciousness of weakness, finitude, dependence on the Unseen Power, is reflected the fact that we are borne in the embrace and nourished from the life of the Eternal. If we waywardly strive to depart from him, we cannot. Though we should make our bed in hell, we should still be in him who to all ungodliness is a consuming fire.

However rampant godlessness may seem to-day, no day has given more evidence of a human thirst for God, a longing of minds disillusioned by the pursuit of unblest goods to find him who is the strength of the soul. The supreme achievement, peace, glory of our humanity, is just this, to come consciously home to our Father God. Only in finding him we find our true self; only in knowing him whose we are we know what we are.

In far dimmer light than ours man's instinctive quest for him was rewarded with the great discovery that uttered itself in the prayer of Moses: "Lord, thou hast been our dwelling-place in all generations." Long afterward Jesus' utterance of the still higher consciousness of God which he had reached, "I am in the Father, and the Father in me," set the mark of his disciples' endeavor, "that they also may be in us." For one who will devote some moments of every day to the same discovery how would the light that never was on sea or land irradiate and divinize the modern world with the glory of him in whom we live!

"Speak thou to Him, for He hears, and spirit with Spirit can meet.
Closer is He than breathing, and nearer than hands and feet."

Less Work, More Power

There is no need in this busy age and country to impress the necessity of action; there is a great and sore need to teach in this country to-day the lesson of the supreme importance of being. If executive men or women in any department of life are wanted, they can be found in this country by the scores; but if men and women who have mastered the philosophy of their subjects by meditation and sustained thought are needed, they can be counted on the fingers of one hand, and in some departments it is fortunate if they can be found at all. The rising tide of good works ought not to be checked; "By their works ye shall know them"—but we must learn to keep the balance. We need an immense reserve capital of thought, knowledge, character, and experience. Behind good deeds there must be a great soul. Our schools are teaching an immense range of subjects, and they are compelled to do so, but, after all, education lies in knowing a few things down at the roots. Our churches are doing a necessary and inevitable thing in building up great organizations for work; but the greater the machinery, the deeper the need for a larger motive power. If we are to have more action, we must have more devotion. If we are to have the emphasis of the expression of the religious life in the service of man to man, we must not forget the old flame of prayer that went up through the Middle Ages and warmed the hearts of men. Richness, freshness, faith, youth—these are fed by the great fountains of religion, of nature, of human fellowship, of art, and these are the fountains that keep men young. It is the constant feeding of the growing interests which absorb them that keeps men and women young. These fountains lie all about us, but how few of us have access to them! In this age, in which the cry of the world and the call of duty ring like a telephone in every house, it is well to remember that the end of life is not in always running to a telephone because there is a good cause at the other end of it. There may be dissipation in good works just as in any other way, and

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people so deplete themselves by doing good works that they cease to have any spiritual power to give out or any freshness or vitality to diffuse. We must keep a zone of silence about our lives. Every one of us needs an hour or two every day by ourselves. We need detachment from men, seclusion from the world. The great things come out of silence, not out of noise; and in this tumultuous age, with the clang of cable-car and the ringing of the telephone bell continually in our ears, we must hedge ourselves around with a zone of silence or every bit of spiritual power, of religion, of energy, and of divination of the Prophet will go out of us.

We need also to keep some leisure for ourselves. We have no right to give away all our time. The crops are growing in the ground around us without a sound. They are going to feed the whole continent, and they are doing it at their leisure; our haste does not touch them. We must learn to keep some time for ourselves; and not live up to the very margin of our days. Honest people always live within their income; but there are hundreds and thousands of us who are living beyond our incomes in the matter of time.

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The Spectator

The Spectator had been wondering whether, after all, he must not revise his inherited faith in the popular value of books and libraries, when he met his friend the librarian. He had had a depressing experience, shared doubtless by others who look for too much outward evidence of enthusiasm for culture, even among the elect, in the "provincialism" of a great city. He had been spending a few days at a metropolitan university club to find that college men talked of, and apparently cared for, only the things of business which absorb others, quite regardless of the higher associations which such a club suggests. For example, the club's attractive library seemed to him quite neglected compared with the drinking-room. Indeed, it was here that the contention was strenuously made—a contention that he has more than once encountered before—that Mr. Carnegie would have done a far greater service had he put into model tenements or hospitals the money he has invested in libraries. Who but scholars care for books in these days of the magazine and the newspaper? was the gist of the argument, though perhaps not put quite so bluntly as that in the precincts of a university club.

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But his talk with his friend the librarian quite reassured the Spectator. She is one of the truly fortunate in whom career and aptitude are mated, a sympathetic and enthusiastic woman, yet possessed of the sane judgment and executive ability which are said to belong to the other sex. Through years of special professional training and experience in different cities, she is peculiarly fitted for her present problem—that of popularizing a large and well-equipped library in a center of philistinism—a pushing, prosperous manufacturing city of sixty thousand. She began, as all up-to-date librarians begin, by abolishing arbitrary rules and restrictions, throwing the stacks open to all to pick and choose books for themselves, making all feel that it is "their library," almost as an owner feels in a private library—in short, making it as easy as possible "to get just the book I want," instead of as hard as possible, as in some libraries the Spectator knows about. "Of course," said the librarian, "there are thieving people and ignorant people—what can you expect of the recently arrived Lithuanians or their children?—who keep or lose our books. I suppose it may, in that way, cost a hundred dollars a year to make this a real 'people's library.' But that is a small price to pay, after all, for the new pleasure so many people are finding in books—what the library is for. And then I think that loss is growing less every year, as people come to appreciate how mean it is to steal or lose what belongs to them all."

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It was about here in the talk that the Spectator submitted the contention that it was a comparative waste of money to endow libraries, because reading habits are going out and books no longer fill a

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popular want, being supplanted by the newspaper and magazine. "That is not true to-day," returned the librarian, "and will be less true twenty years hence if the public libraries do their duty. You know," she added, parenthetically, "there has been a great increase in libraries in the last thirty years, not counting those Mr. Carnegie has given, and that does not look as if reading habits are going out. The modern library aims first of all to build up a reading constituency; that is, it starts with the schools. Why, considerably more than half of our annual city appropriation is spent on books for the public schools. We consult with the teachers, make up small 'traveling libraries' to be passed around containing books to supplement the children's studies, and even establish branch libraries in some of the larger schools. Do you suppose that children who are brought up to go to books for what they want to know will stop going to books when they grow up?"

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"But how about the newspaper?" asked the Spectator. "Children are not, as a rule, newspaper readers. When they get the newspaper habit later, will it not supplant the book habit?" "That does not fit in with my experience," replied the librarian. "Once let a new topic become prominent in the newspapers, and we should know it here at the library if we never opened a paper ourselves. For example, there has been a great run on books about Russia and Japan ever since the war opened. To meet it, we have taken many extra copies of the leading magazines, put them into stiff covers, and sent them out in place of books because of their up-to-date articles on the war or the two countries. Indeed, I am not sure," she added, thoughtfully, "whether that was a good plan from the book standpoint, for many seem satisfied with the magazines. However, it would surprise you to see what an amount of 'solid reading' workingmen do. Business men, the few of them who ever draw books at all, want novels. The strain of the business life is too intense, I suppose, and they seek something simply to amuse. But workingmen, whose day is more or less monotonous, at least in a factory, want intellectual stimulus, something to give their thinking variety, and this they find in history, sociology, or books of travel. The women? Well, you know my own sex likes lighter reading—fiction, essays, poetry—except in the winter when the clubs are 'getting up topics.' Then they go in for history and science a little, but it generally seems to be done from a sense of duty, perfunctorily, for almost always they give signs of evident relief when it is over. It is significant, by the way, to note how many calls we have for American history and biography from immigrants or their children. They want to learn about the past of their new country and its great men."

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Turning to special features of modern library work, the Spectator's friend noted that it was distinguished for co-operation and economy of administration. This has been true especially since the formation of the American Library Association, which has found so many practical ways by which one library can supplement another. For example, by adopting a uniform arrangement in grouping topics, cards properly indexed can now be secured from the Congressional Library with each invoice of new books, saving the individual library an immense amount of clerical work. A book list is also issued which a librarian can trust in determining the usefulness for library purposes of the month's output of books —that is, which of these books a library ought to have, which would be of advantage, but not necessary, and which it can omit. A system of inter-library loans of books between the State library and various other public libraries of the State, as in New York, has more than "made good." There are some bold enough to suggest that the Congressional Library may some day become the center of a similar system covering the country. Its extra copies of books are now catalogued, and may, by scholars at least, be secured through the libraries at leading centers. But what interested the Spectator most in his friend's talk was the possibility of making the library of the future a culture-

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center in music and art no less than in literature. Through the library system of New York State, for illustration, are circulated some fifty thousand pictures, photographs of famous scenes or cathedrals or copies of paintings, to hang on the walls of school-rooms, or to be used in settlement or university extension work—in the last case in the form of lantern slides. The circulation through libraries of scores for the piano or violin is by no means uncommon, while the circulation of rolls for mechanical piano-players will doubtless be taken up as soon as a standard-size roll has been adopted. Many libraries already have rooms devoted to collections of coins or insects or old prints—collections that will, as popular interest grows, come to be loaned and inter-loaned, following the example of the Buffalo library. In short, the possibility for developing the library as a culture-center seemed to the Spectator quite beyond present realization.

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The Spectator's friend had no personal knowledge of the traveling library as it has been worked out in some of the Western States. So he was glad to contribute a modicum of information on this phase—some recently published figures of the traveling library system in Kansas, which has at disposal 15,080 volumes, and in eighteen months has circulated 66,168 books among rural patrons. Each library includes fifty books and is shipped in a small trunk. When a club applies for a library, it has the privilege of first or second choice of the books then in, books that seem to fill the place as nearly as possible being substituted, if necessary. Each club is allowed to keep a library six months, but no club can have two libraries at once. Under these conditions, 401 libraries were sent out in the eighteen months. The clubs thus supplied averaged thirty-three members each, and, on the average, each member read five books. These are among the encouraging facts noted in the superintendent's report: "Where a library goes once, it goes always. I don't know of a single case in the past four years where any club has quit patronizing us." Again: "Our books have a big circulation among the ranchmen of Kansas. Cattlemen are great readers, something I never knew until I got into this work; and they want the best books, too." Once more, and best of all, the Spectator thinks: "It is remarkable how few books we lose. The fact is, we don't lose one out of a thousand, except in case of railroad accident or floods."

The Movement in Porto Rico

By the Right Rev. J. H. Van Buren, D.D.
Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Porto Rico

This letter is furnished us by Bishop Van Buren in response to a request from The Outlook for information respecting the movement toward home rule in Porto Rico; especially upon two points: "How much real, genuine sentiment lies back of these protests? If the demands were granted, would there be any increase of civic fiber?" The history of the movement and its significance are discussed in our editorial pages.—THE EDITORS.

IN my opinion, there is a deep and far-reaching discontent with existing conditions in the minds of intelligent Porto Ricans. It is to their great credit that this sentiment has found a lawful and temperate expression. It has for a long time been offensively stated in the editorials of the local press. Some of this irritation is doubtless well founded, and we need only to put ourselves in the place of the complainants to realize, in part at least, the justice of their complaint.

More, however, I firmly believe, is the result of misapprehension and of race prejudice; and in saying this I do not forget that it applies to both sides. I believe that a better mutual understanding and recognition of the good elements in the two streams of Latin and Anglo-Saxon civilization which refuse to blend would clarify the waters and tend

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to a *modus vivendi*. I think the petition should receive the most careful and sympathetic study. But it needs to be wisely pointed out, with avoidance of offensive terms, that to grant it in its fullness would mean practically to withdraw all United States control and protection. Nor do I think the petitioners would be satisfied with the granting of these demands. Absolute independence of the United States is the real thing they ask, and nothing less will satisfy them.

What Governor would be able to command the assent of such a Senate to his appointments of the six heads of Departments if he appointed any but natives of the island? How long would it be before the Governor would give up the useless contest? What is there in the conduct of affairs by native alcaldes (mayors) in the several cities there to inspire confidence in an honest administration of the treasury by native appointees? Unfortunately, we are not in a position to commend the example of some of the city governments in our own borders, but this does not justify so radical a measure as the granting of appointive power to the Governor, subject to a native Senatorial revision. To answer your question, I do not think it would tend to the "increase of civic fiber."

As to the effect upon the cause of universal education, it could not but be disastrous—from the North American standpoint. It would mean Roman Catholic schools supported by the Government. This would inevitably tend to the reduction of that item in the budget, the creation of a favored class, the continuance of widespread illiteracy, and the gradual abolition of enlightening, modern methods and subjects of study.

In the department of the judiciary equally dangerous prospects are opened to view by the appointment of a native Attorney-General, when one considers not only the reputation of the native courts, but the radical difference between the Latin and the American system of jurisprudence. The jury system is open to serious criticism here in the homeland, but it is better than the system which formerly obtained in Porto Rico, when civil courts, through their magistrates, enforced ecclesiastical discipline, and when official tyranny went "unwhipt of justice."

The petitioners have seemingly forgotten some of the things that were found in Porto Rico when the American troops landed there—the hundreds of prisoners in the dungeons of Fort Cristobal, some of whom did not know why they were there, and against whom no charge was found on the books; the professional beggary; the absence of sanitation; the farce that went by the name of a popular election; the utter lack of equity in the assessment of taxes.

This petition can be granted, in my opinion, only by agreement at the same time to evacuate. But I think a better mutual understanding can be arrived at by the appointment of a commission, not only to take counsel with leading natives, hear their grievances, and investigate their charges, but also to point out to them that the United States has been put in trust with eternal principles which it is bound to enforce for the sake of mankind wherever the flag flies, and that any surrender of those principles means treason; that while every reasonable opportunity should be given for native representation in the government of the island, yet that merit alone can qualify for office, that the time has not come for withdrawing the safeguards, and that the greatest good of the greatest number demands that the United States do not haul down the flag nor hand over the reins of government to the native statesmen at their present stage of development.

This is, at least, the personal opinion of one who loves the people of Porto Rico, desires their highest good, and believes that good is bound up with the American principles of civic righteousness wisely administered by able, fearless, honest, and patriotic men, be they of whatever race, creed, or color.

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The United States Department of Agriculture

By W. M. Hays

Assistant Secretary of the Department of Agriculture

MEN who are not very old remember when the "Commissioner of Agriculture had a desk with a satchel full of seeds under it." Men yet young can remember when the movement to improve agriculture was dubbed "book farming." Not until the new century appeared did the Government begin to realize that the scientific movement to improve agriculture must be reckoned with as one of very great power and usefulness. The visible field for work daily grows wider and deeper, and the methods needed to approach the solution of the new problems are being rapidly wrought out. The scientific questions which are constantly unfolding are wonderfully interesting, the technical methods of research and betterment are both marvelous and efficient, and the whole problem is vast, intricate, interesting, and important. Benefits already secured are sufficient to pay all the expenses of scientific effort for decades to come, and the prospects are that for each dollar spent ten, and in many cases one hundred, will be returned. The farmers are to grow their products with less expenditure of labor and money, and both producer and consumer will share in the benefits of this lessened cost.

Because of the large number of experienced scientific workers employed, each with numerous graduate assistants, the Department of Agriculture may properly be termed the greatest research university in the world. Because it directs its energies to practical industrial affairs, and gives to graduates the chance to study as assistants in actual work under the masters, it may be termed the most American of all universities. And it is no more strange that a Scotch farm boy who became an Iowa farmer, whose collegiate and graduate courses were on the farm and in public life, should head this greatest and most American university than that a Kentucky backwoodsman and Illinois lawyer should have been called to lead the Nation in its hour of greatest trouble. The times develop men to lead great movements; and effective leadership in the scientific evolution of our industries will more and more command recognition.

Animal production on American farms, representing annually the enormous sum of about two billion dollars, is gradually becoming a safer and more scientific business. The diseases of animals are being brought under better control by the combined efforts of the Bureau of Animal Industry, the State live stock sanitary agencies, and the State experiment stations. The splendid work in controlling diseases, as in the eighties the stamping out of pleuro-pneumonia in cattle, and in the past few years the complete eradication of foot-and-mouth disease in cattle, the great reduction of hog cholera in Minnesota and Iowa, the success attending the efforts of the Department of Agriculture in the treatment of sheep scab and cattle mange on the ranges, and other similar achievements, are showing that these organizations are qualified to carry out any needed work along this line. The people are preparing for a complete service in which National and State authorities in co-operation shall use quarantine and other methods to abolish some of the general diseases which now cause annually tens of millions of dollars' loss by injury to animals, and by restrictions in the movement to markets of animals which have been exposed to disease.

The functions of the Bureau of Animal Industry have been enlarged in recent years, and animal breeding and animal feeding are now becoming prominent lines of its work. This work for the most part is in co-operation with State experiment stations. A breed of heavy

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carriage horses, based on the best carriage horses to be found among American trotters, is being formed in co-operation with the Colorado station. An experiment in connection with the Iowa station has been under way for some time to produce a type of sheep suited to the Western ranges. Plans are under contemplation with the Minnesota, Iowa, and other stations, and with co-operative organizations of farmers associated with those stations, in producing milking types of Shorthorns, more prolific types of Poland China swine, and other breeds to meet local needs and conditions. The Minnesota station has presented plans for co-operative experiments in the breeding of tuberculosis-resistant rabbits, preliminary to investigations in the breeding of cattle which shall be more resistant to this disease, hoping thereby to reduce the loss from bovine tuberculosis and thus to lessen this source of infection of the white plague in man. Experiments to produce cholera-resistant swine are likewise incubating, and a renascence in animal breeding, following the recent rapid development in plant breeding, is being reflected in the Department and in its proposed co-operation with experiment stations. This bureau is also co-operating with experiment stations in animal nutrition. In Pennsylvania this Department has provided Dr. Armsby with a calorimeter in which a cow is fed under conditions in which all the food and all the bodily outgo, including even the breath, are analyzed. By this means many of the wonderful changes to which food is subjected in the digestive tract and in the body tissues are successfully studied.

The forests of the United States were long neglected by a people who, compelled to mow down trees to subdue fertile agricultural soils, had come to feel no just concern for our permanent wood-lots. Constructive work of a high character has been inaugurated, and public and private forests are rapidly coming under plans for their wise administration as to harvesting timber and as to the care of growing trees.

The scientific care of the farm wood-lot is being worked out. The development of the entire tree scheme for the farmstead, with shelter belts, shade trees, and ornamental trees and shrubs, all designed to surround the American farm home with a frame of growing beauty, is being made fashionable. While present commercial conditions will not permit more than a respectable part of the needed preservation of the forests for future use, that which can be accomplished is being carried out in a manner which is commended on all sides. A great step forward was made when Congress placed under the Forest Service (the new name for the Bureau of Forestry) the forest reservations. And with the wise administration now being developed, other forest lands will no doubt come under this service. Not only are methods of keeping out fires, of reforesting, and of harvesting forest crops being developed for American conditions, but the value and uses of trees are being studied, as also the best methods of manufacturing wood products. A brilliant line of work is progressing on methods of preserving fence-posts, railway ties, and bridge and building timbers.

Plants, which are Nature's primary agencies for the synthesis of the elements of soil, air, and sunshine into forms useful to man, are here studied as at no previous time. Science has laid a deft hand upon the plants which serve man. There is no plant which refuses to be improved, and no soil which cannot be bettered. The farm scientist studies the entire farm, that he may balance his sale crops and those he feeds to his domestic animals—the crops carrying fertility off the land and those that are returned to conserve its fertility. He devises a plan of teaching the farmer how to reorganize his farm on a scientific engineering basis, as the bridge-builder works out an architectural plan of a bridge. He institutes a simple plan of keeping records, which enables the farmer to use scientific data of crop production—as the bridge engineer uses the data of the strength of materials in his planning—thus enabling the farmer to tabulate the average facts of his own farm experience, and making it an easy matter to project his plans on paper several years forward. His main lines

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of work may be truly cumulative as to excellence of the general farm plan, as to the routine of work, and as to the actual net yearly profits. The expert in farm management has no trouble in demonstrating that the proper and effective management of the 160-acre farm gives opportunity for the exercise of a wider knowledge of details and a broader philosophy than conducting a bank.

Plant diseases are studied in every detail of their life histories or habits, that their ill effects may be minimized. The clover bacteria, long the co-workers with their host plant in securing from the air nitrogen with which to enrich the soil, have been isolated, multiplied, placed in tablets or on masses of cotton, and sent by mail to fields where, for the lack of these, its friends, clover before would not grow. It seems even probable that this microscopic friend may be bred up so powerfully that it will not only enrich poor soils, but will not, as now, become indolent in the luxury of lands already rich in nitrogen, and even there increase the crops of clover, alfalfa, peas, and beans, leaving the soil still more fertile than do the common clover bacteria now found in most soils. The heredity of each of the great staple field, fruit, and vegetable crops is in the hands of a specialist in the Department of Agriculture; and numerous breeders in State experiment stations have each taken one or more species to train up in the way they should grow to produce better crops under local conditions. Even forest trees are finding public officials and private plant breeders entering their heretofore sacred family records and selecting out the best. These experts first study the plant species, the characters of its varieties, and how changes are needed to make it grow better or to furnish products of greater economic and artistic values. The work of hybridizing, to discard—to make atavic—the undesirable characteristics, and to blend into a more useful type the best characteristics of two or more parents, is becoming one of the high arts. But the most valuable part of the work of plant breeding will be to add ten per cent., or two hundred millions of dollars, annually to the two billions of dollars' worth of crop products; possibly it can be an increase of twenty-five per cent., or five hundred millions.

The seed distribution, started in a satchel and grown to large proportions, is in two parts. The smaller part of the fund provided by Congress for seeds is used by the scientists in introducing valuable new seeds; the larger part is used to send out to the people standard varieties of seeds. Under recent improvements all seeds sent out are purchased, graded, and tested after the most approved plans of the best seed firms. Since a former Secretary met defeat in trying to abolish free seeds, the Department has insisted that, if seeds are to be distributed, they must lead the van in purity and viability, and, so far as practicable, be adapted to the regions to which Congressmen send them.

The mysteries of the soil are found to be deeper, more complex, and more important as the soil scientists go further into its secrets. But the struggle is on, and the Secretary's determination that the farmer shall have his soils investigated is being carried out. Soil surveys of the agricultural regions of each State are being made, from which maps are constructed. These surveys are being made practical by following them with trials of crops in rotation to determine the most profitable group of crops and their best sequence in the rotation for each soil area, the State stations taking an important part in this work. The chemical and physical activities and the biological activities in soils are being studied from many standpoints, and where the crops tell their story in large or small yields the laboratory tries to find the reasons for the results.

The Biological Survey is amassing facts about the wild plants and animals of America. The life zones of each species as to latitude, longitude, and elevation are being recorded, and some of the facts are proving useful in the introduction and distribution of species, varieties, and breeds from other localities similar in soil and climatic conditions. The wild game animals and birds are the especial care of this branch of the Government. Their protection from wanton destruction, the execution of the

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inter-State game laws, and the introduction of foreign birds, fur animals, and other valuable acquisitions to our public game preserves, are very practical functions of this branch of the Department. There is need for a wider knowledge as to which species will hybridize, and work in zoölogical parks along this line will add much to their interest and value. The food habits and the injury or benefit to agriculture of wild mammals and birds are being studied.

Statistics of agricultural production, and especially of the distribution of the raw and manufactured products of the farm, affect wide interests. New lines of statistical investigation are being developed from time to time, though the bulk of the work of the statistician is in gathering information monthly and annually of the amount of crops and other products in prospect or actually garnered. This information and facts concerning home and foreign markets constantly supplied to the public do much to give stability to markets and to prevent sudden and unwarranted changes in prices. Special investigations in the statistics of agriculture also are collected and published, that more may be known of the relation of the farm to outside affairs. The colleges of agriculture have begun courses of study in agricultural economics, and much is being done in assembling the data and in devising methods of studying many of these problems. A better knowledge is needed of the basic statistical facts governing the agricultural interests in tariff legislation; of the financing of agricultural research to work out better plans and means of farm management; of popular education in agriculture; of good roads, etc.

Chemistry is becoming a great weapon of the police. The National and State chemists are not only determining the facts all along the line of the values of fertilizers and of food and feed stuffs, and the injurious effects of preservatives and how to detect these, and the fraudulent mixing and adulterating of foods for plants, animals, and men, but they are aiding in enforcing salutary laws to secure a square deal in the sale of domestic and imported products of all these classes.

Economic entomology in the National Department of Agriculture and in the State experiment stations has been earning increasing confidence. The total amount of economic benefit to fruits, vegetables, field crops, forest trees, and animals from these investigations is marvelous. Owing to this kind of work, New York, Michigan, Missouri, and other apple-growing States spray their trees, and the great apple markets are supplied with apples at a cheaper price, which are not only better because they are freer of insects, but are more profitable to the growers. The improved methods of fighting the potato bug enable farmers to produce potatoes more cheaply, and similarly other vegetables are produced at less expense and are of finer quality. The entomologists are learning how to save gigantic losses from forest insects that in large numbers attack the leaf, bark, or body of the tree, and are advising as to methods of harvesting and rotative forest cropping. These men are effectively entering the domain of advice in farm management, and are learning how to overcome the ravages of many insects by methods of crop rotation and cultivation. They are even studying the diseases of insects, that they may use the natural enemies of insects unfriendly to man in fighting them. Probably no other department of the Government deals with such an infinite variety of details as does the Bureau of Entomology. The devotees of entomological sciences are mainly men born with peculiar instincts, or love for that line of work.

The Department of Agriculture has close relations with the State agricultural colleges, and especially with their experiment station department. The Office of Experiment Stations is the bureau through which the Secretary mainly deals with these institutions in fiscal and educational and other relations. Much of the more local experiment work is carried out by the respective bureaus of the Department in co-operating with the workers in the experiment stations of the several States. There is, and must ever be, a constant readjustment of these relations, which are very advantageous to both institutions, and are usually har-

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monious and pleasant. The colleges and stations are developing many men of great ability and influence in their respective States, and the Department has a splendid function in aiding these men to gain wide recognition and influence among their own people and outside their States as well. Not only men who have devised a valuable method of investigating an important problem, but also men and women who have designed improved methods of industrial education for farm boys and girls, here find sympathetic aid. The work is more and more crystallizing about the problems. Scientific classification and methods are secondary; they are the workman's tools, which are constantly being readjusted and new ones invented to suit whatever project is to be carried through. The problem and the individuality of the scientist are the chief factors, and the chief function of the executive branch of this vast scientific department is to provide suitable conditions under which the scientist can attack the problem.

The results of the vast research work and experiments of this splendid university, its constant efforts to help and to educate the farmer, all need intelligent and extensive publication and dissemination, and through thousands of well-written bulletins and circulars, edited by a corps of trained men, and numbering more than one for each day in the year, this information is purveyed in the simplest language possible to the farmers of this country and to others who are interested in the practical and scientific development of agriculture.

There is a growing need of men and women in education and research work related to agriculture and home economics. The agricultural colleges are not producing really competent specialists as rapidly as they are needed. More students should choose the collegiate courses in agriculture and home economics; more graduates of general and technical colleges should take their graduate courses in these colleges and prepare themselves to work in institutions for education and research in relation to rural affairs and country life.

Education in the Philippines

By James A. Le Roy

NO statement of the Government's educational programme and performances to date in the Philippine Islands has been made that is so comprehensive and so illuminating as that presented by the General Superintendent of Schools, Dr. David P. Barrows, in his address to the Convention of School Superintendents at Manila on December 12, 1904. It was reproduced in the first number of "The Philippine Teacher," a governmental publication at Manila, which is of itself of no little interest to the student of Philippine affairs. After summarizing the administrative accomplishments of the preceding year and a half, Dr. Barrows stated the various features of general educational policy in the islands to be:

(1) To place primary instruction within the reach of every child in the Christian provinces of the archipelago.

(2) To organize all parts of every Christian province into school districts in charge of competent supervising teachers, who shall see that uniform school organization is carried out, which shall embrace every municipality and eventually every considerable barrio.

(3) To train a sufficient number of Filipino young men and women as teachers, and to so perfect the service of the Filipino teacher that there will open before him a dignified, properly compensated profession, constantly enriched by new stores of instruction and widening experience.

(4) To organize in every large municipality or group of municipalities an intermediate school for the continuance of the fundamental educational work of the primary course, and to give every boy and girl in attendance that industrial training in tool-shop, garden, and home which is so manifestly needed by the population and whose importance has been repeatedly emphasized. In addition to the intermediate schools, which form the preparatory departments of each provincial school, at least sixty new intermediate schools situated outside of provincial capitals will be needed for the proper

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instruction of the pupils of the islands before the end of two years.

(5) To establish in every province a provincial high school with the five departments of instruction enumerated by law, which high schools shall be in fact technical training schools, preparing the young people of these islands for useful life professions or for entrance into a college or university of American type. There are at the present time thirty-eight of these provincial high schools organized in thirty-five provinces, Manila having three, including the American high school, and Ambos Camarines two, one of which is at Daet, in the former province of Camarines Norte, and including the recently established high school for the Moro province at Zamboanga. Two more are needed, one at Cuyo, province of Paragua, and one at Calapan for the island of Mindoro.

(6) To further develop along the excellent lines which they are now pursuing the three technical schools established by the insular government in Manila—the Philippine Normal School, the Philippine School of Arts and Trades, and the Philippine Nautical School.

(7) To thus prepare the way, by the thorough establishment of a system of primary and secondary instruction in the islands, for the establishment of the Philippine University.

Estimating that there are 1,200,000 children between the ages of six and fifteen in the Philippine Islands, said Dr. Barrows, provision must be made for the instruction at any one time of about 400,000, in order to meet the aim of giving primary school instruction through a three-year course to every child in the Christianized, settled provinces. Answering the question, What do three years of such instruction give? he said:

As planned in the prescribed course, they give three years' study of the English language; in these three years our experience teaches us that the Filipino child learns to understand English and to speak it with considerable facility and accuracy. He learns enough so that he will never give it up as a medium of communication. He learns to read with sufficient fluency so that periodical literature and books of simple English are not beyond his understanding. His thought is broadened from the narrow circle of interests in which his ignorance has previously confined him, and he is liberated from that social and mental bondage in which he has previously existed.

In the second place, this course of primary instruction gives two years of work in arithmetic; enough to enable the boy to understand the ordinary computations in which the simple business of his life is conducted. He can gain enough knowledge of numbers and arithmetical computations to avoid being swindled and outdone in every commercial transaction in which he has a part. He can learn something of the laws governing purchase and sale, of loans, advances on crops, of interest, of commission, and something of the rights of a man in such business operations. Two years of instruction in arithmetic given to every child will in a generation destroy that repellent "peonage" or bonded indebtedness that prevails throughout this country.

In the third place, this primary course gives at least one year of elementary geography, in which the child may learn something of the great world at large, its countries, its peoples, and a good deal of the archipelago which constitutes his native land.

These studies, together with the moral and the physical training which accompany our school work, make the child who finishes the primary school a person of far different possibilities from the man whose education never rises beyond that of the routine toil that constitutes a peasant's life and whose range of vision scarcely passes beyond the confines of his barrio. If we can extend our system so that it shall include 400,000 school children, and give this instruction for the space of ten years, we shall practically do away with ignorance in the Philippine Islands, and there should be no such thing as illiteracy among the rising generation.

This may not be an "imposing pedagogical programme," commented Dr. Barrows, "but it is a practical one." Moreover, it is not so modest as it may seem. "It is all that is attempted by Japan, the success of whose system of public schools is evident and magnificent." The Japanese primary course is similar to that in the Philippines, and quite as simple. Only three years of primary instruction are given in Italy, which is far from illiterate. Commissioner Harris's recent monograph on "Elementary Education in the United States" shows that the average instruction received by the 15,000,000 school children in the public schools of the United States amounted in 1898 to 4.46 years, and that so recently as 1872 it was 2.91 years. One might apply to the governmental aim in the Philippines Commissioner Harris's comment: "The average schooling . . . secures for each person a little more than one-half of an elementary school course of eight years—enough to enable the future citizen to read the newspaper, to write fairly well, to count, add, subtract, multiply and divide, and use the simplest fractions.

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In addition, he acquires a little geographical knowledge, so important to enable him to understand the references or allusions in his daily newspaper to places of interest in other parts of the world." Dr. Barrows inquires:

> In the face of this fact . . . would it not be an error to introduce in the schools of these islands—especially in view of the present social conditions of the country—a primary course modeled upon that of the United States and covering eight years? I may go further and inquire whether it was not a mistaken policy on the part of the Committee of Fifteen of the National Educational Association to recommend for the United States a primary course of eight years, in which practically no one of the twenty-odd subjects pursued is brought to conclusion before the seventh or eighth year? The result in the United States at the present time is that the average scholar completes not a single one of the primary subjects of instruction, and never enters upon fully half of them.

Next, as to the practicability of the Government's programme, as to the number of teachers needed, the buildings for schools, school supplies, and the probability of getting the pupils themselves. The average of pupils to Filipino teachers is now sixty, the same as in Japan. There are about 3,700 Filipino schoolteachers paid by the municipalities, and 300 (besides the 900 American schoolteachers) on the pay roll of the insular government. To teach 400,000 children, 6,000 or 6,500 teachers will be needed. Municipal finances are generally such as to discourage the expectation of an increase in the force, or of an increase of the pay of these teachers (now averaging twenty-one pesos), were it not that the new internal revenue law comes to the help of the educational programme, it being provided that five per cent. of its proceeds shall go into the municipal school funds. This amount is estimated to produce during the coming year 350,000 pesos, and Dr. Barrows thinks the 1,500 new Filipino teachers it is proposed to add to the force may be obtained from normal students and other natives who have received schooling under the new régime and who may be classed at first as "aspirants" and paid lower wages while undergoing their apprenticeship under the American supervising teachers (supervision is now fully recognized as the proper function of the American teachers in the island). In this way also needed school buildings may gradually, if not quite rapidly, be secured; during the past year some six hundred buildings have been constructed in the barrios, using in payment of the labor the supplies of rice purchased out of the Congressional relief fund. Dr. Barrows concludes, therefore, that the prospects are good that "within the next six months we may have enough Filipino teachers, enough school-houses and school furniture, even though these may not be in every case of the most approved type, and enough school equipment for the instruction of 400,000 children."

As to the prospect for getting those 400,000 children into the schools, he is visibly much encouraged, in comparison with his remarks upon enrollment in his report of 1903. He says that in April, 1903, based upon imperfect data, the total school enrollment for the archipelago probably did not exceed 100,000. In September, 1903, it was 182,202; in March, 1904, 227,600; in July, 1904, with the opening of a new year, and despite the fact of this being the month for planting crops, it was 263,974; in September last, the returns showed 322,000 pupils in the primary course, besides 8,000 in the intermediate course and 12,000 in the night schools. Returns were in December incomplete for the entire archipelago; but, if the same rate of increase had been maintained as was shown in the reports from a majority of the divisions, the total primary enrollment for the archipelago would have been, in December last, 338,000, exclusive of the night schools. The general superintendent estimated at 364,000 the total attendance in the public schools of the archipelago, including intermediate and high schools, night schools, schools for the Moros, Igorots, etc. This is a result not counted for in the most sanguine predictions of the preceding year, and "shows that the object of primary instruction as at present defined is practically attainable."

Wholly preferential attention is given to organizing the primary school instruction first of all, but it is by no means all that is being done. It will be a sufficient answer to various non-seeing

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critics of the Government's educational programme in the Philippines who have complained that no attention was being given to "manual training" to quote from Dr. Barrows's further remarks:

The intermediate course, too, is a short course. It aims to give thorough instruction in English grammar, in elementary arithmetic, in elementary geography, in civil government of the Philippines, with a considerable amount of supplementary reading in easy literature and in historical and descriptive narrative. It offers three years of what it is believed may be most excellent elementary science instruction; the first year in plant studies, the second year in animal life, and the third year in human anatomy and physiology. No subject is more worthy of emphasis in our schools than science. No studies have a more practical and immediate bearing upon the material good of this people than the branches of science, and an effort, as has already been apparent, is to be made to apply the knowledge gained in the class-room to the actual problems of country and of trade. Together with these class-room or laboratory studies there is to be given to the boys three years of shop work, or three years of agricultural work, or two years of shop work and one of agricultural work, or two years of agricultural work and one of shop work; and for the girls three years of good, practical housekeeping. It is in the intermediate schools, in fact, that our plan of industrial education is to be carried out. This is the proper place for it. We cannot do it in the primary grades. We have neither teachers, equipment, nor power to give creditable industrial education to 400,000 Filipino school children. We can, however, in a most excellent and practical way, give industrial and practical instruction to the children in the intermediate course. The Bureau of Education has sufficient funds to hire the teachers, to provide the laboratory equipment and the text-books, and there is being graduated constantly from our primary course the very pick of the Filipino children, equipped by three years of English study for taking up in an intelligent way the education which is both a mental development and an industrial training.

The work of the intermediate course is not yet fully organized for the archipelago, but Dr. Barrows hopes to see this accomplished by next June. The question of suitable buildings and grounds is yet unsolved; but the Commission has recently appropriated 350,000 pesos from the Congressional relief fund for the building of model school buildings for intermediate and high schools in the provincial capitals not already supplied and in various other important towns which should have the facilities to be provided by the intermediate schools in industrial and agricultural training. Turning to the question of the high schools, in which there are at present comparatively few pupils, Dr. Barrows said:

The secondary or high schools maintained by the provinces were to be, as contemplated by the law establishing these institutions, technical or semi-professional schools. They aim to take the child, after he has had an adequate preparation, and introduce him to a course of study that will give him the equipment for a useful and dignified calling. After a term of years spent in a high or provincial school, the pupil may come out as a skilled agriculturist, competent to handle the affairs of an estate and to promote the agricultural development of his country; or as a school-teacher, ready and equipped to do the fundamental work which underlies all progress; or as a master mechanic in either wood or iron working; or as a graduate of commerce, qualified to serve the Government most excellently or to advance the business interests of the country; or he may have completed four years of training in literature, history, and the sciences, which it is believed will equip him to enter any college or university of American type as a candidate for the bachelor's degree. Our high schools are still in the future. The immediate necessity is for intermediate instruction. For the next two years the major portion of our efforts must be devoted to developing the intermediate or preparatory schools of every provincial high school, and building up at least sixty additional intermediate schools in important school centers of the islands. Then, at the end of two years, we shall begin to feel the pressure to secure adequate buildings and equipment for our secondary schools. This is a subject too large to enter upon at the present time. I merely wish to express here the extreme satisfaction that is felt at the splendid readiness of the provincial boards to co-operate with the Bureau of Education in providing for secondary school equipment. I have only to invite your attention to the admirable display of drawings of buildings and grounds arranged by the architect of this bureau, to show you how widespread is the movement among provincial boards to secure large campuses, in some cases including more than a hundred acres of land, and the erection of a group of buildings which should make these schools what they should eventually be—small colleges or technical training schools, with courses leading to useful avocations.

Finally, the concluding remarks of the general superintendent go to the very root of the questions underlying American policy in the Philippine Islands. They might have been, though they were not, calculated to answer recent criti-

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cisms of the American Government because it does not devote itself to the industrial development of the Philippines rather than the educational development of the Filipinos. He said:

School enrollment and attendance have multiplied beyond every expectation, and the spirit of the people and of the Filipino press is most heartily and loyally in accord with us. . . . [This is the most striking feature of the situation, which no keen observer of what is going on in the islands will have failed to note; the most radical Filipinos and most radical Filipino newspapers, however covert in their criticisms of American rule in other ways, are enthusiastically supporting the work of the Bureau of Education.] Without the assistance of these leaders of the Filipino people themselves, all efforts of the Bureau of Education would not only be impotent, but it would not be proper to make them. The encouraging feature of our work is that we are laboring and planning for a people of no mean spirit and no small ambition. The Filipino is quite as eager and ambitious as his successful neighbor, the Japanese, and appears disposed to make no less sacrifices in behalf of his progress. It is in the work of the Bureau of Education that his progress fundamentally and always rests. Material benefits can neither be taken advantage of nor enjoyed by a people illiterate and ignorant. Development of markets and of trade only accompany higher standards of life, and higher standards of life proceed nowhere so quickly as from an advance in education. The successful issue of the public government inaugurated in this country rests more than anything else on the work done in the schools. If the work done by the Bureau of Education succeeds, the American government implanted in these islands will succeed.

The experiment in which we are engaging is not only as noble and as splendid as that in which any party of men can participate, but it is also significant for the future of civilization in Asia. It is worthy of receiving the very last meed of devotion and the sacrifice even of life itself. Our work is to plant here the result of American democracy and to justify its ideals. We are here to promote a better understanding between the races and to bring about a thorough spiritual accord between the men of the East and West, in which our own Nation shall be the leader. Whether or not the political authority of the United States shall forever continue in these islands or shall extend beyond them, may be a question for difference of opinion; but if the ideals for which American democracy stands are to prevail in the world, the educational mission of our Nation must succeed.

The Scourge of the Forest

By Charles G. D. Roberts

Author of "Kindred of the Wild," "Watchers of the Trails," etc.

THE drought had grown almost unbearable, and man and beast, herb and tree, all seemed to hold up hands of appeal together to the brazen sky, crying out, "How long? How long?" when there came at last a faint, acrid pungency on the air which made the dry woods shudder with fear. Close on the heels of this fierce, menacing smell came a veil of thinnest vapor, lilac-toned, delicate, magical, and indescribably sinister. Sky and trees, hills and fields, they took on a new beauty under this light, transfiguring touch. But the touch was one that made all the forest folk, and the settlement folk as well, scan the horizon anxiously and calculate the direction of the wind.

Miles away, far down the wooded ridges and beyond the furthest of the little lakes to southward, some irresponsible and misbegotten idiot had gone away and left his camp-fire burning. Eating its way furtively through the punk-dry turf, and moss, and dead-leaf débris, the fire had spread undiscovered over an area of considerable width, and had at last begun to lay hold upon the trees. On an almost imperceptible wind, one morning, the threatening pungency stole up over the settlement and the ridge. Later in the day the thinnest of the smoke-veil arrived. And that night, had any one been on watch on the top of the ridge, where Red Fox had had his lookout two months earlier, he might have discerned a thread of red light, cut here and there with slender, sharp tongues of flame, along a section of the southward sky. Only the pair of eagles, however, who dwelt in the high ravine facing southward saw this beautiful, ominous sight. In the last of the twilight they

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rose and led off their two nestlings, now clothed with loose, black feathers and looking nearly as large as their parents, to the top of a naked cliff far up the flank of old Ringwaak. Here they all four huddled together on a safe ledge, and watched the disastrous red light with fascinated eyes.

Red Fox, meanwhile, was in his lair, too troubled and apprehensive to go hunting. He had had no experience of that scourge of the drought-stricken woods, the forest fire. His instinct gave him no sufficient information on the subject, at least at this early stage of the emergency. And for once his keen sagacity found itself at fault. He could do nothing but wait.

As the night deepened a wind arose, and the red line across the southern horizon became a fierce glow that mounted into the sky, with leaping spires of flame along its lower edge. The wind quickly grew into a gale, driving the smoke and flame before it. Soon a doe and two fawns, their eyes wide with terror, went bounding past Red Fox. Still he made no stir, for he wanted to know more about the peril that threatened him before he decided which way to flee to escape it. As he pondered—no longer resting under his bush, but standing erect behind his den mouth, his mate and the youngsters crouching near and trembling—a clumsy porcupine rattled past at a pace of which Red Fox would never have believed a porcupine capable. Then a weasel, and four or five rabbits immediately at its heels, all unmindful of its insatiable ferocity. By this time the roar and savage crackle of the flames came clearly down the wind, with puffs of choking smoke. It was plainly time to do something. Red Fox decided that it was hopeless to flee straight ahead of the flames, which would be sure to outrace and outwind his family in a short time. He thought it best to run at a slant across the path of the conflagration, and so, if possible, get beyond the skirts of it. He thought of the open fields adjoining the settlement, and made up his mind that there lay the best chance of safety. With a sharp signal to his mate, he started on a long diagonal across the meadow, over the brook, and down the hill, the whole family keeping close behind him. No sooner had they crossed it than the meadow was suddenly alive with fleeing shapes—deer and a bear, woodchucks, squirrels and rabbits, two wildcats, mice, weasels, and porcupines. There were no muskrats or mink, because these were keeping close to the watercourses, however shrunken, and put their trust in these for final escape.

As Red Fox ran on his cunning cross line, he suddenly saw the fierce, bright tongues licking through the trees ahead of him, while blazing brands and huge sparks began to drop about him. The air was full of appalling sights and sounds. Seeing that the fire had cut him off, he turned and ran on another diagonal, hoping to escape over the ridge. For a little while he ran thus, cutting across the stream of wild-eyed fugitives, and presently found that in this direction also the flames had headed him. Checked straight behind his den by a long stretch of hardwood growth, the flames had gone far ahead on either flank, tearing through the dry, balsamy fir and spruce groves. Not understanding the properties of that appalling element, fire, nor guessing that it preferred some kinds of woods to others, Red Fox had been misled in his calculations. There was nothing now for him to do but join the ordinary, panic-stricken throng of fugitives and flee straight ahead.

In this frightful and uncomprehended situation, however, Red Fox kept his wits about him. He remembered that about a mile ahead, a little lower down, there was a swamp on a kind of hillside plateau, and a fair-sized beaver pond at the further end of it. Swerving somewhat to the left, he led the way toward this possible refuge at the utmost speed of which his family were capable. This speed, of course, was regulated by the pace of the weakest members; and for the big, headstrong whelp, whom his father had had to save from the old raccoon and from the mad muskrat, it was by no means fast enough. Terrified, but at the same time independent and self-confident, he darted ahead, neck and neck with a bunch of rabbits and a weasel, none of whom appeared to have

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the slightest objection to his company. To his mother's urgent calls he paid no heed whatever, and in a moment he had vanished. Whether his strength and blind luck pulled him through, or whether he perished miserably, overtaken by the flames, Red Fox never knew.

Keeping very close together, the diminished family sped on, bellies to earth, through the strange, hushed rustle of the silently fleeing wild creatures. Behind them the crackling roar of the fire deepened rapidly, while the dreadful glow of the sky seemed to lean forward as if to topple upon them. From time to time the smoke volleyed thicker about them, as if to strangle and engulf them. Over their heads flew hundreds of panic-blinded birds—grouse, and woodpeckers, and the smaller sparrow and warbler tribes. But the wiser crows, with the hawks and owls, knew enough to fly high into the air beyond the clutch of the flames.

Comparing the speed of his own flight with that of the flames behind him, Red Fox felt that he would make the beaver pond in time, though with nothing to spare. His compact little party was now joined by two raccoons, whose pace seemed just to equal that of the young foxes. For some reason they seemed to recognize a confident leadership in Red Fox, and felt safer in following him than in trusting to their own resources. Yet, unlike most of the fugitives, they appeared to be in no sense panic-stricken. Their big, keen, restless eyes took note of everything, and wore a look of brave self-possession. They were not going to lose in this race of life and death through any failure of theirs to grasp opportunity. Had Red Fox lost his head and done anything to discredit his leadership, they would have promptly parted company with him.

The swift procession of fear surrounding Red Fox and his family was continually changing, though always the same in its headlong, bewildering confusion. Some of the creatures, as the deer and the rabbits, were swifter than the fox family, and soon left them behind. Once, indeed, a wildly bounding doe, belated somehow, going through the thickets with great leaps of thirty feet from hoof-mark to hoof-mark, brought her sharp hoofs down within a hair-breadth of Red Fox's nose, so that he felt himself lucky to have escaped with a whole hide. Others of the animals, on the other hand, were slower than the fox family, and were soon outstripped, to fall back into the galloping vortex whose heat was already searching hungrily under the thickets far ahead. The porcupines, for instance, and the woodchucks, and the skunks—hopeless but self-possessed in the face of fate—could not long keep up the terrible pace, and soon went under. All this tragedy, however, was no concern of Red Fox, who troubled himself not a jot about any one's business but that of his own family, where his interest, in such a moment as this, began and ended.

Suddenly, to his intense astonishment, he ran plump into a big black bear, who stood motionless in a hollow under a thick-leaved beech-tree. Red Fox could not understand why she was not fleeing like the rest of the world. But as he swerved aside he saw behind her, stretched out in utter exhaustion, her two cubs. Then he understood. She had evidently brought her cubs a long way, the little animals running till they could not stumble forward one step more; and now, having exhausted every effort to arouse them and urge them further, she was awaiting her doom quietly, holding her great black body to shield them as long as possible from the onrush of the flame. The fugitives streamed past her on either side, but she saw none of them, as her eyes, strained with despair, wandered back and forth between the roaring blaze and the prostrate bodies of her cubs.

Red Fox noted with anxiety that his own youngsters were beginning to slacken speed and stumble as they ran, requiring all their watchful mother's efforts to keep them spurred on. But a moment later he caught a red gleam reflected from water just ahead. He smelled the water; and the wearying puppies, as they smelled it too, were encouraged to a fresh burst of speed. A few seconds more and they were up to their necks in the saving coolness, the two raccoons close beside them, and every kind of

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forest dweller panting and splashing around them.

Much as they hated the water, the fox family could swim in such an emergency as this; and Red Fox led the way out to the biggest beaver house, which stood, a ragged dome of sticks and mud, near the center of the pond. There was trampling and splashing and swimming everywhere, most of the larger animals, the bears and deer, gathering at the further side of the pond. On several overhanging limbs crouched wildcats and a couple of lynxes, afraid to take to the water, which they abhorred. Amid all the confusion and terrifying sounds the beavers, usually the shyest of wild creatures, were working imperturbably, paying no heed whatever to the motley throngs scurrying around them. They knew that the long drought had baked the roofs of their houses to a tinder, and now, in a desperate but well-ordered haste, they were covering them with wet mud from the bottom of the pond. They, at least, were going to be safe.

By this time the heat was extreme, and the crackling roar of the flames was almost upon them. Red Fox led his family around to the further side of the big beaver house, but himself kept watch where he could see everything. The smoke was now volleying down upon the surface of the pond in great bursts, the water was smitten here and there with red brands that hissed as they fell, and the tongues of flame that ran up the tall trunks of pine and fir seemed to leap bodily into the air in order to set fire to the trees ahead of them. The whole southeastern sky was now like a wall of molten and blazing copper, stretching to the zenith and about to topple down upon the world. Against it, a last despairing barrier already beginning to crumble, stood, black and defiant, the water-side fringe of trees.

At last the too frail barrier went down, and the roaring storm of fire broke full upon the pond. In their pain and panic many of the creatures trampled one another under water. Others, afraid of drowning, were slain by the implacable heat. The fox family, however, well away from the densest and maddest of the crowd, sank their bodies quite under water, just lifting their noses every other second to breathe. Red Fox himself, resolutely curious no matter what the emergency, kept his head above water as long as possible and dipped it under as briefly as possible, enduring the heat till his eyes felt scorched and his nostrils almost blistered, in order that he might be aware of all that happened. He saw one great lynx, his fur so singed that he looked hardly half his usual size, spring far out into the water with a screech and never rise again. He saw the other great cats swimming frantically, and clambering out of the unaccustomed element upon the backs of deer and bears, who paid no attention to their strangely unhostile burdens. One huge wildcat, badly scorched, succeeded in reaching the top of a beaver house, where he crouched snarling and spitting at the flames, while squirrels and chipmunks crowded about him unheeded. Drenched from his plunge, his thick, wet fur seemed to withstand the heat for a time. Then his wits came to his help, and he slunk down into the water again, his eyes staring wide with the very madness of terror.

In a minute or two the flames had raced around both sides of the pond and met again, inclosing the water with a spouting and roaring wall of fire. The rabble of beasts gathered at the further side now surged frantically back toward the center of the pond; and Red Fox anxiously made ready to lead his family away from the path of the bedlam mob. But the unhappy creatures, too crushed together to swim, merely trod one another down, and most of them were drowned long before they reached the center. The bigger and stronger ones, of course, survived the struggle, but of these many presently went down, burned inwardly by the flames they had inhaled; and the assault which Red Fox had dreaded was utterly broken. Only a few stragglers reached the beaver houses in the center, where the wet mud was sending up clouds of steam.

The pond was no longer crowded, but looked almost deserted in the furious crimson glow, for all the survivors were either swimming about the center, diving every other moment to keep their heads

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from scorching, or else crouched like Red Fox beneath the sheltering element. Only the wise beavers were perfectly content within their water-houses, and the muskrats in their deep holes, and the mink lurking under the swampy overhanging banks.

In a few minutes more the heat palpably diminished, as the underbrush, branches, and smaller trees along the windward shore of the pond burned themselves out in the fierce wind, leaving only the taller trunks to flare and flicker like half-spent torches. The heat from the roaring underbrush of the leeward side, of course, was partly carried away by the wind. Little by little the center of the conflagration shifted ahead, and the leaping spires of flame moved forward, leaving behind them thick smoke and red, glowing spikes and pillars of hot coal to illuminate the dark. The remnants of the bushes along the shore still snapped with vivid and spiteful sparks, and the thick moss and leaf mold that matted the forest floor smoldered like glowing peat. As the heat still further moderated, many of the animals still left alive tried to go ashore, but only succeeded in burning their feet. Red Fox, too sagacious for such a vain attempt, led his family out upon the top of the beaver house, and waited philosophically for the awful night to wear away. At last, after hours that seemed like months, the savage glow in the northwestern sky began to pale in the approach of dawn, and pure streamers of saffron and tender pink stole out across the dreadful desolation. By noon, though the fire still ate its way in the moss and the smarting smoke still rose thickly on every side, and here and there the blackened rampikes still flickered fitfully, the ruined woods were cool enough for Red Fox to lead his family through them by picking his way very carefully. Working over toward his right, he came at last, footsore and singed and choked with thirst, to the first of the lower pastures, which had proved too wide for the flames to cross. On the other side of the pasture were woods, still green, shadowy, unscarred. In a sort of ecstasy the foxes sped across the hillocky pasture and plunged into the blessed cool.

Summer Vesper Sermons

VI.—The Woman of Samaria[1]

By Lyman Abbott

FROM a simple request of a village woman for a drink of water, Christ led the conversation on to one of the deepest truths of human life: "Whosoever drinketh of this water shall thirst again: but whosoever drinketh of the water that I shall give him shall never thirst; but the water that I shall give him shall be in him a well of water springing up into everlasting life." The contrast is between the ministry of things to life and the power of life in itself.

Water quenches the thirst; presently the thirst returns and demands again to be quenched. Food satisfies the hunger; presently the hunger returns and clamors again for food. We read a book; from the book we generally get in a single reading all that it has to give to us, and that book serves us no more till we have forgotten it. We buy a picture and hang it on our walls. In time associations cluster about it and give it a distinct value in our eyes, but if we could separate it from these associations we should discover that the first joy of possession does not abide. Not only do things decay—the food, the book, the picture, the piano—but, save as association invests them with a new meaning, or they are capable of a variety of uses, their power to please is a lessening power. We children of a larger growth weary of our toys. This is the argument of pessimism: desires are either satisfied or unsatisfied; if satisfied, satiety is the result; if unsatisfied, unappeased hunger is the result; and neither is happiness.

But pessimism makes no account of

[1] John iv. 1-14.

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the other truth—the permanence of life itself. The picture fades; one form of art loses its power to please and another takes its place. But the æsthetic nature does not decay. And he who possesses it paints his own pictures with invisible colors on an invisible canvas, or sees them in the ever-changing picture gallery which nature furnishes him. The growing boy reads in succession Oliver Optic, Charles Dickens, Walter Scott, William M. Thackeray, George Eliot. Each new stage of development calls for a new type of fiction, as each generation has its favorite authors. But all the time the love of literature, which is truly an appreciation of life, is growing. The book is lost or worn out or loses its power to please; but imagination, analysis, interest in human character and life, remain. What stories the imaginative child will tell himself after the mother has bidden him good-night! He reads the book which no man ever wrote; imagination and fancy are in him a well of water springing up into everlasting life. The story is told of Beethoven that in his old age, deaf and blind, he played upon a worn-out harpsichord music which happily he could not hear. The movement of his fingers was an aid to the inner ear which heard the imaginary music, and that was the real music.

The real sources of happiness are in ourselves, not in our possessions; in our imagination, not in the novel; in our appreciation of beauty, not in the picture; in our musical culture, not in the piano. Your enjoyment of nature this summer—the sea, the mountains, the flowers—will depend not upon the sea, or the mountains, or the flowers, but upon yourself. Some men will find more joy in the prairie than others in the Alps, some more joy in the desert than others in the flowers and forests of Southern California. Is it the rich, the merry, the powerful, the popular, that are blessed? We look about us and we know that this is not true, though we act as though it were. Blessed are the poor in spirit, the meek, the merciful, the pure in heart; this we know is true, though we act as though it were not. No one is truly happy who has not happiness as a well of water springing up within himself into everlasting life.

The "American" Characteristics

By Tudor Jenks

JUST as a composite photograph is made up by the continual emphasizing of that which recurs, and thus becomes a fair type or average, so is the character of a nation brought into being. Those traits that are oftenest exercised deepen the impression made upon observers until certain characteristics are recognized as belonging to each nation.

In regard to foreign nations this will be readily granted. Despite the diversity of individuals, none of us would deny that the Frenchman, the Englishman, the Russian, each has his points that rank him with his fellow-countrymen and differentiate him from men of other nationalities.

It is not so easy for us to see that Americans—using the word to mean ourselves, "we, the people of the United States"—likewise bear the imprint of our nation. Yet foreigners see in us what we see in them; they find us as plainly marked "American" as we find them marked otherwise. They do not hesitate to ascribe to us qualities no less distinctive than those we expect to see in them.

What are these marks?

Perhaps the most generally recognized American characteristic—remember that we are putting foreigners on the witness-stand—is "smartness," to give it an American name. Foreigners expect to find us *smart;* that is, quick, ready, keen, with an abundance of the small change of life. This quality may, of course, have its good or its bad side, and we are credited and debited accordingly.

Another American trait is generosity, lavishness, extravagance—some form of that willingness to part with property of which the two poles are benevolence and recklessness.

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A third may be found somewhere between eloquence and garrulousness, between oratory and buncombe. The American is a "good talker." His bump of language is well developed, and when his speech takes the form of humor, humor distinctively American, it is formed by the three qualities already considered. The typical American joke is smart, extravagant, and well put. Perhaps Artemus Ward's settlement of the Shakespeare-Bacon question may be accepted as an example: "I believe that the plays were not written by Shakespeare, but by another man of the same name."

As a fourth quality we may put coolness, intrepidity, presence of mind. The foreigner would expect an American to brag and bluster, perhaps, but he would be very cautious about "calling the bluff" —though he would express the idea in another way, no doubt.

Conceit is attributed to the sons of Uncle Sam, but it is not exactly personal conceit. When the American is made to brag, the foreign satirist makes him vaunt his nation or his people rather than himself. It is "we," not "I."

No one denies to Americans a chivalrous regard for woman; but we are accused of carrying this good quality to excess; we are prone to exalt womankind to a degree that proves harmful to her. Americans "spoil" women and children by over-indulgence. But this comes from a certain good-natured tolerance that might be included in a wider category. Indifference to trifles, and a consequent long-suffering patience within limits, will explain a number of American traits that might be catalogued under various detailed names.

But the list is long enough, and includes the more important distinguishing marks of the American as he might be sketched by a foreign observer.

Shall we admit the portrait to be a likeness?

I believe that the general outlines of the character sketched for us are correct. But it seems to me that many of the qualities attributed to us are entirely misunderstood. The misunderstanding is a natural one. The actions upon which foreigners put interpretations suitable to their own circumstances admit of other interpretations, and would be otherwise interpreted if they understood American conditions. And here for the first time let us consider our alleged pursuit and worship of the "Almighty Dollar." This American characteristic is hardly a quality; it is rather regarded as a national failing, the result of a narrowness of vision, of a wrong estimate of values.

But foreigners who come to our land and learn life under American conditions become naturalized in this respect quicker than in any other. They see for themselves exactly what the American has seen, and they learn that the "Almighty Dollar" in America deserves its adjective. In their own land money gives them certain powers, but these powers are strictly limited by customs, institutions, and conventions. The ruble, the franc, the pound sterling, can buy much, it is true; but there are locks a money-key will not open. In America the dollar opens all doors, *provided a man be what he should be.* But abroad even this proviso will not give foreign money the power of an American dollar. In our own land time and money will enable a man to become whatever any American may become. He or his descendants may be made the equals of any other.

It is this knowledge that gives the value to American money. To an American the dollar is not only a proof of achievement, but it is the assurance of opportunity. With it he can buy freedom, education, independence. Whatever he may be, his children have the whole future in which to develop.

Money is worth only what it will buy; and in America money renders every career possible. This the immigrant learns, and straightway he becomes rich, that he may become ambitious.

Thus the American love of money is rooted in a good motive, and, springing from a healthy root, it rarely grows into miserliness. We fight for money, and then part with it for whatever is better worth having.

The quality of lavishness is thus an American characteristic because the American can obtain so much by his ex-

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penditure. Where hoarding is common, you will find that there is little to tempt to expenditure. The sense of latent power is what brings gratification to the miserly; where the reality of power is made easy, the temptation to hoard is lessened.

The many opportunities open to every American cultivate that readiness which is called "smartness." The conditions of our life have made it necessary for each man to play many parts. Having tried all trades, and found all easier than is believed by outsiders, the American is ready to assume any duty that may fall to him. He is unused to acknowledge ignorance. If a tire is to be shrunk upon a wheel, he remembers the day when he mended the barn-door hinge, and resolves to commence wheelwright. If he is called upon to take up arms, he shoulders his rifle with the consciousness that the farmers of 1776 knew even less of soldiering than he, and yet gave a good account of themselves.

Jack-of-all-trades and rolling stone, it would be odd if the American had not developed a glibness and readiness of speech. Out of the fullness of mind and heart the tongue speaketh. A brain that has thought out many an odd job of tinkering is not likely to lose itself amid the mechanism of debate.

The boy Lincoln used to take apart and remake the arguments he heard until he learned how the wheels of logic cogged together, and then he found the capacity to manufacture what he had learned to analyze.

The conditions of life in a raw country will account for that cast of character that makes a man "American." Somewhat the same product has come from Australia, Canada, and South Africa, but the ingredient of independence is lacking in all three. The great weight of established conventions, the side-glances at the home country, the constant reference of all matters to an older fixed standard—these seriously handicap the colonist as compared with the native of an independent nation.

Granted ability and experience in practical affairs, and the American certainly has both, there is no mystery in the existence of National courage or National self-confidence. If these did not exist, it would be a mystery indeed. Given these, and an absence of deference to any outside nation, and there will follow an amazing frankness—a frankness that will often be regarded as brag. But possibly, after accusing "Yankees" of claiming an ability to "lick all creation," the foreign world may find that there is some little justification for a more modest claim. Certainly the talk, during the war with Spain, of an "Anti-American Alliance" gives our Nation proof that she is worthy of some consideration in the world's Cabinets.

There is no need to speak of the American indifference to trifles. When hunting grizzly bears one does not mind mosquitoes, and Americans have been busy over a deal of new territory ever since the Liberty Bell rang. We have no time even to form our children's manners upon the prunes-and-prisms standard, or to see that they shall properly respect our rather undignified selves. When the American comes to the voting age, his manners are not so bad if compared with those of his fellow-citizens of the world. If he treats his own womankind too well, there is little danger that he will be boorish to others of the gentler sex; and as to his masculine associates, the American concedes all rights, at least, and may in time add the graces.

To use the well-worn phrase, we certainly have the defects of our virtues. There is much that we may learn from our foreign friends, and every good American admits this. Is it too much to claim that, even of immaterial commodities, we are continually making valuable importations from abroad?

To bring these broad generalities into a tieable bundle, is not the American idea "Practicality"? Does not the American, above all others, take the world as it is, and judge it from first principles? Instead of asking what "they say," or what "has been said," the American asks, "What is the fact?" and acts accordingly.

Our soldiers were the first to teach the world how to fight under modern conditions. Our sailors first showed how to get speed out of ships, and how to aim guns to hit the enemy. Wher-

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ever theory can be brought to book and squared with facts, American ideas have prevailed.

Did not Davy Crockett get very near to the American Idea when he launched the immortal maxim: "Be sure you're right, then go ahead"? Who can express it better?

Essays in Art Criticism[1]

THESE essays on seventeen masters of painting or sculpture and three topics of encyclopædic interest are the gleaning of about twenty years of critical journalism by a distinguished American draughtsman, teacher, and mural painter. During that period Mr. Cox has contributed constantly to the New York "Nation" and to the monthly reviews articles and critiques which were all marked by incisiveness of tone and avoidance of mere phrase-making. One perceived a sort of passionate contempt for current æsthetic cant, a constitutional distrust of the superficial or merely charming in art, and a resolute effort towards a just and impersonal point of view. This criticism, in short, was what it should have been, coming from the best academic draughtsman of the nude figure that America has produced. Its qualities and defects are those of an enlightened academicism.

One is not surprised to find that Mr. Cox is most satisfactory when he deals with thoroughly well-regulated talents like those of Baudry, Hals, Sargent, Veronese; that he overestimates such conscientious mediocrity as that of Meissonier, and betrays a certain *malaise* and a tendency to fall back upon minute technical analysis when he confronts the mystery of temperamental genius in such artists as Dürer, Michelangelo, and Rembrandt. A certain dogmatism, too, is occasionally annoying; it impels our author to dismiss Carpaccio as almost a nobody, to dwell superfluously on the obvious faults of Tintoretto, and to write down Copley (who in his best portraiture is surely indigenous, and measured on any British scale is quite first rate) as a "second-rate English painter." Yet it is precisely this peremptoriness that makes the restrained scorn of the appreciation of Millais capital reading, and gives pungency to such an indictment of pre-Raphaelitism as the following: "Pre-Raphaelitism, as practiced by its founders and as advocated by Ruskin, was essentially an appeal to the boy or the savage; it was the denial of synthesis, of composition, and of art, and the attempt to produce a literal interpretation of nature by exact analysis and by a return to the most primitive of technical methods."

But there is in all the essays a most unusual clarity of style and probity of judgment. More particularly, there is a genuine relish for the nobler kinds of mural design, whether illustrated by the author's darling, Veronese, or by his opposite, Puvis. In fact, all decorators and all persons interested in the subject should read the papers on Veronese, Puvis, and Baudry, in order to be liberated from modern and too narrow definitions of mural quality. Of Veronese Mr. Cox writes with well-informed enthusiasm, fully agreeing with the late William Hunt's opinion that "Paul Veronese has more qualities as a *painter* than any man who ever lived," and Mr. Cox as well makes a convincing demonstration of the largeness and gracious humanity of the great Venetian's invention. The essay is a welcome work of rehabilitation, and a necessary one; for the average art lover, dazed before the profusion of Veronese, declines to use his eyes.

We may note finally the two appreciative essays on Saint Gaudens's early work and on the splendid equestrian "Sherman" which stands in Central Park Plaza. The analysis of the Renaissance formula for basso-relievo is so well done in the first Saint Gaudens essay that it makes the rather slight treatment of the same subject in the first essay of the book seem superfluous. In the second Saint Gaudens essay a failure

[1] *Old Masters and New: Essays in Art Criticism.* By Kenyon Cox. Fox, Duffield & Co., New York.

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to acknowledge a marked if most spirited mannerism in the "Sherman" makes the paper less a criticism than a eulogy. As an American writer on art Mr. La Farge has in a sense no second, but if a second had to be chosen the vote would undoubtedly fall to Mr. Cox, for a criticism that always manifests intellectual vigor, a keen if not a subtle sense of quality, and a scholarship which, though expressly disclaimed, is catholic in scope and adequate in thoroughness. Mr. Cox is actively productive, and new editions of this very mature first volume will undoubtedly include others of the great artists, to make room for whom we should not regret to see a handful of the scrappier essays put aside.

Mr. Paul's "History of Modern England"[1]

IT is more than a year since we had occasion to comment on the opening volumes of Mr. Herbert Paul's "History of Modern England." The third volume, now at hand, exhibits the characteristics of its predecessors. The charmingly incisive, direct, easy, and epigrammatic style, the vivid informativeness, the detachment, the liberality of judgment which distinguished them are again apparent. The treatment, too, remains the same, with all its virtues and defects. Once more attention is concentrated on persons rather than events, and once more, while intellectual, social, and economic conditions are examined, stress is laid chiefly on the political side. It cannot be said that the interest is as well sustained as in the earlier volumes. But the fault is not wholly Mr. Paul's. Abroad, in the Austro-Prussian and Franco-Prussian wars, in the unification of Germany, in the collapse of the Second Empire, in the establishment of the Third Republic, and in the final overthrow of the temporal power of the Papacy, there was much to dazzle the eye and fire the imagination. At home, however, affairs pursued a singularly even if not altogether tranquil course. Questions of domestic rather than of foreign policy occupied the minds of England's statesmen. And, though some of these questions touched the nation to the quick, and made and unmade Ministries, the period studied (1865–1876) must be accounted dull as compared with the stirring and picturesque era treated in the first two volumes. Historically, of course, it was of great significance. It marked a notable growth of the democratic spirit, witnessing, among many things, a much-needed extension of the suffrage, recognition of the duty of the State to provide its children with at least elementary education, dawning appreciation of the rights of labor, and the first serious attempt to remedy the ills of Ireland. Its keynote, in short, was reform.

Reform was in the air when, upon the death of Lord Palmerston, Lord Russell became Prime Minister and Mr. Gladstone leader of the Government's forces in the House of Commons. It was, as Mr. Paul observes, taken for granted that a measure enlarging the franchise would be introduced. But it was not taken for granted that it would succeed of passage. When brought in, after some months' delay, due to the Administration's preoccupation with the rising of the Jamaica negroes, the activity of the Fenians, and the rinderpest plague—all of which are duly noticed by the historian—the issue was not long in doubt. "Show me," cried Gladstone, "why the working classes should be excluded from political power." "Show me," retorted Lowe, of Cave of Adullam fame, "why the character of this House should be changed." The one might voice the sentiment of the nation, the other had behind him a majority of the House. With the bill went the Ministry, after a scant eight months' existence, and to "the model of all the virtues" succeeded "the master of all the arts." A year's painstaking "education of the Conservatives," to use his own words, and Disraeli himself was sponsor for a reform bill even more liberal in its provisions than that presented by the Russell-Gladstone Administration. "The fury

[1] *A History of Modern England.* By Herbert Paul. In 5 vols. Vol. III. The Macmillan Company, New York.

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of Mr. Lowe," we are told, "almost exceeded his very considerable powers of speech." Lord Salisbury, then Viscount Cranborne, denounced "'a political betrayal which had no parallel in our annals, and which had struck at the roots of that Parliamentary confidence upon which alone the strength of our representative system was maintained.'" The rage of the Adullamites and the uncompromising Tories disturbed Disraeli not a whit, for he knew his position was secure. Liberals and Radicals could criticise, but they could not oppose. Passing the Commons, the bill was presented to the Lords, accompanied by a "not obscure" intimation from the Prime Minister, Lord Derby, that should they reject it he would resign. The threat had the desired effect because, little as they favored reform, the Peers "dreaded a Liberal, perhaps a Radical, Government as the worst of calamities."

To all appearances "the Conservative leader, or rather the leader of the Conservatives," could confidently look forward to a long tenure of office. It was then, if at all, that he made the reported boast that he would "hold Gladstone for twenty years." Twenty minutes, observes Mr. Paul, sarcastically, would have been nearer the mark. The country obstinately refused to give him credit for his extremely generous Reform Bill. "As Mr. Mill said, with pungent terseness, when Mr. Disraeli told the working classes that he had given them the franchise they replied, 'Thank you, Mr. Gladstone.' They were quite shrewd enough to see that, though the Reform Bill had been drawn up by the Ministry, the Reform Act was the work of the Opposition." This belief played no inconsiderable part in determining the result of the electoral campaign precipitated in the following year by the attack on the Established Church of Ireland. "Ireland," remarks Mr. Paul, justly, "had been neglected for twenty years, when Fenianism proved once more that unsettled problems have no mercy on the repose of nations." In March, 1868, the Liberal leader announced his policy of disestablishment and disendowment, and a month later had so signally defeated the Government as to render resignation or dissolution inevitable. The Ministry chose the second of these alternatives, but it was not until November that Parliament was dissolved, to meet again in the following month with Gladstone as Prime Minister.

It is impossible to follow here the varied and noteworthy legislation of the six years which were to intervene before Disraeli should once more ride in the saddle. The "climax of Liberalism" came in 1870. "Between the 8th of February and the 10th of August," it is chronicled, "Parliament took the first step, the step which costs, in remodeling the agrarian law of Ireland, established a permanent system of elementary education in England and Wales, introduced in the army the principle of short enlistment and a reserve, formed a code of neutrality in time of war, enacted a scientific theory of naturalization, provided for the extradition of criminals, and abolished the punishment of the innocent for the guilty inflicted by the forfeiture of a felon's estate. Of activity so various and so successful scarcely an example could be found since the days of the great Parliament which assembled in 1640, after eleven years of barren personal rule." And, the writer properly adds, "although Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues, especially Mr. Cardwell and Mr. Forster, were the principal agents in producing this splendid result, the entire credit does not belong to them. It was shared by their followers, by the Conservative party, and by the House of Commons as a whole."

It was during these years that the claims of the United States arising out of damage done to American shipping by the Alabama and other Confederate cruisers equipped in British ports were settled, and their settlement forms the subject-matter of a most interesting, if not entirely unprejudiced, chapter. Echoing the dissenting opinion of the British arbitrator, Sir Alexander Cockburn, in respect to every case save that of the Alabama, Mr. Paul expresses strong disapproval of the terms of the Geneva Award, but gladly recognizes that "to have settled a quarrel which was growing more bitter every day, and to have given the world an example of the way

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in which civilized nations should close their differences, were achievements not estimable in gold or silver." While Gladstone was in office, too, occurred the Franco-Prussian War, and this is carefully studied in so far as it affected England, with an incidental survey of the causes of the conflict. "The ostensible cause," writes Mr. Paul, in an admirable summary, "was not the real one. France could not forgive Sadowa. Prussia had not forgotten Jena. The French Empire was on the verge of collapse, and could only be strengthened by military triumph. The rise of Prussia, and the partial union of Germany, revived and kindled sentiments which had slumbered since the abdication of the Emperor Francis in 1806. Historically minded Prussians went even further back. 'Against whom are you fighting?' asked some one of the illustrious Professor Mommsen after the disappearance of the chief French actor from the scene. 'Against Louis Quatorze,' was the reply. Bismarck, who did not trouble himself much about historic feuds, had long seen in France the chief obstacle to his scheme of German unity and German ascendency in the councils of Europe. Having disposed of Austria, he now addressed himself with equal confidence to a greater task."

The solution of the problems arising out of the war and directly involving Great Britain as a Power, together with the settlement of the American claims, kept her Majesty's Government actively employed with foreign affairs during the years 1870–1872. With one important exception—the purchase in 1875 of the Khedive's Suez Canal shares—the next four years, bringing to a close the period under review, saw their attention again held by home and colonial questions. These years also saw the gradual disintegration of the Liberal party and the Conservative reaction which, in 1874, placed the Liberals once more in Opposition. "Mr. Disraeli," as Mr. Paul points out in commenting on the results of the general election, "now found himself for the first time in possession not merely of office but of power. In 1868, though he had made an archbishop, a duke, and a chancellor, he was in a minority and liable to constant rebuffs. At no period of his astonishing career was he less at his ease than in the few months of his first Premiership. Mr. Gladstone was then the real leader of the House, and had the country behind him. Now everything was changed. Real and ostensible authority were combined. . . . Besides the support of large majorities in both Houses of Parliament, Mr. Disraeli enjoyed, after a fashion never granted to his predecessor, the confidence and friendship of the Queen. He was as much a dictator as any Minister in a constitutional country can be." Clouds soon gathered, however. The "Fugitive Slave Circular," issued during the year following the election, and directing that fugitive slaves should not be received on British war-ships unless their lives were in danger, and when received were subsequently to be surrendered, provoked an amazed and angry outcry. The circular was withdrawn, but the public still muttered. Then, opportunely for Disraeli, as for Great Britain, came the news that the Khedive, to save himself from bankruptcy, was on the point of selling his canal shares in France. Their purchase restored waning prestige at a bound. Much could be forgiven the man who had saved to British commerce the highway to India. "Never in his long life," it is declared, "had Mr. Disraeli been so popular before. It seemed as though by one happy stroke he had asserted and maintained British interests at their weakest point without infringing the rights or wounding the susceptibilities of any other nation." And here, for the time being, Mr. Paul takes leave of the apostle of imperialism, basking in the sunshine of popular approval, and dreaming his dreams of a Greater Britain.

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Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

Certainty of the Kingdom and Other Sermons (The). By Heber D. Ketcham, D.D. Jennings & Graham, Cincinnati. 4¾×7½ in. 152 pages.

Combination in the Mining Industry. By Henry Raymond Mussey, Ph.D. (Columbia University Studies in Political Science. Vol. XXIII. No. 3.) The Columbia University Press, New York. 6×9½ in. 167 pages. $1.

Daughters of the Faith: Serious Thoughts for Catholic Women. By Eliza O'B. Lummis. The Knickerbocker Press, New York. 4½×7¼ in. 159 pages.

Economics of Land Tenure in Georgia (The). By Enoch Marvin Banks, Ph.D. (Columbia University Studies in Political Science. Vol. XXIII. No. 1.) The Columbia University Press, New York. 6×9½ in. 143 pages. $1.

Educative Process (The). By William Chandler Bagley, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 358 pages. $1.25, net.

Among the many works on the actively discussed subject of education that labor at the solution of its problems this volume holds high rank. There are many that say, "Lo here" or "Lo there" is the royal road. Competing theories have their advocates, but the advocate is prone to lose judicial balance, and to claim too much. Judicial balance is the quality everywhere conspicuous in Dr. Bagley's work. Constant warnings against the harmful extremes to which a helpful principle or practice may be pushed make this book a desirable mentor to the ambitious and adventurous teacher. Its fundamental theses are, that the function of the educative process is to secure the transmission to each generation of the experience of the race, and that its end in view is to secure the development of socially efficient individuals—an end inclusive, as here defined, of livelihood, knowledge, culture, harmonious development, and morality. Successive sections discuss the acquisition of experience, its functioning in habit, in judgment, and in the formation of concepts, the organization and recall of experience, the selection of experiences for the development of ideals, the transmission of experience, and the technique of teaching. The emphasis is laid throughout on educational principles, and is everywhere accompanied with cautions to apply them with discrimination: "Method cannot be generalized; what is food and drink at one time may become the veriest poison at a later stage." While Dr. Bagley is mainly concerned to teach the principles of pedagogy, he has not failed in adequately illustrating the limits and methods of their rational application: a chapter on the hygiene of the educative process is indicative of that.

Fool Errant (The). By Maurice Hewlett. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4¼×7½ in. 361 pages. $1.50.

Mr. Hewlett's "fool-errant," an English young gentleman of the eighteenth century, who comes to Padua to study, is a singular character, carefully wrought out by the author's subtle art. With the loftiest idealism, the most devoted love of beauty and honor, the most sacred adoration of womanliness, he holds an attitude toward his preceptor's wife like that of Dante to Beatrice. But, unhappily, he is also impetuous and passionate and totally oblivious of practical and common-sense views of life. To atone for a fault imagined, but not committed, he involves others as well as himself in dangers and difficulties of an extraordinary kind. Whatever may be thought of his strange performances, they are the means of launching him into an adventurous romance. We "take the road" with Francis as we have joyously taken it with other romantic figures of fiction. The rapid change of scene; the vividness of portrayal of Italian society; the quick-moving panorama of peasants, friars, thieves, play-actors, masqueraders, and schemers; the sharp clash of sword and knife; the intensity and dramatic quality of the narrative—all these things hold the imagination and excite the interest. There are unpleasant incidents and sometimes an excessive frankness in depicting things as they were in the Italy reproduced. But as a faithfully wrought and vigorous piece of fiction-writing the book is unusual.

Giotto. By Basil De Selincourt. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5½×8 in. 232 pages. $2, net.

It is a pretty legend that tells of Giotto tending his father's sheep on a Tuscan hillside, where he is found by the Florentine painter Cimabue scratching rude pictures of his charges with a sharp stone upon the rock. This tradition, with the commonly accepted belief that Cimabue was Giotto's master, has been harshly assailed by criticism, until Cimabue's very existence has come to be doubted, and Giotto is held to have gained his inspiration and training from Roman sources. Mr. De Selincourt, however, believes, on grounds which he sets forth most convincingly, that Giotto was a Florentine, that his art was the result of Florentine influences, and that his Florentine master was probably Cimabue. He describes in detail the paintings by Giotto which have survived, and adds some interesting comment on his work as sculptor and architect. His

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criticism is sympathetic and illuminating. Forty excellent illustrations add to the value of the volume.

Great Parliamentary Battle and Farewell Addresses of the Southern Senators on the Eve of the Civil War. By Thomas Ricaud Martin. The Neale Publishing Co., New York. 5½×8½ in. 255 pages. $2.

Girls' Christian Names: Their History, Meaning, and Association. By Helena Swan. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 3¾×6 in. 516 pages. $1.50.

Abundance of curious and learned information, together with many quotations and references to literary associations.

Girdle of Gladness. By Arad Joy Sebring. Richard G. Badger, Boston. 5×7½ in. 63 pages.

Heritage of Unrest (The). By Gwendolen Overton. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4½×7 in. 329 pages. 25c.

A paper-covered edition of a vigorous and unusual tale which in its other editions has had a large reading.

Hints on Horses: How to Judge Them, Buy Them, Ride Them, Drive Them, and Depict Them. By Captain C. M. Gonne, R.A. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 9×8 in. 90 pages. $2, net.

Humorous Quartets. By Lee G. Kratz. Oliver Ditson & Co., Boston. 6½×11 in. 49 pages. 50c.

Image in the Sand (The). By E. F. Benson. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5×7¾ in. 364 pages. $1.50.

Not psychomancy, but real old-fashioned magic mingled with modern spiritualism, is the theme which the author of "Dodo" essays as the basis of a story. His attempt is a bold one, and at times the imagination is captured and the attention fixed. At other times, however, the elements of incongruity are too strong, and instead of being terrified the reader is amused. Thus, the picture of a group of quite ordinary English people in an Egyptian temple, carefully gathered in a circle protected by pentagrams and *swastikas*, calling into re-existence (by breaking an ancient amulet) the evil spirit of an Egyptian dead many hundreds of years, and nearly falling victims to his wrath—all this is not exactly convincing and even smacks of the ludicrous. Bulwer, in "A Strange Story," really did produce the effect Mr. Benson here tries to achieve. This tale is cleverly written, but disappointing.

Indian Stories: Retold from St. Nicholas. Illustrated. The Century Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 179 pages. 65c.

Capital tales of Indian legend and adventure.

Jordan Valley and Petra (The). By William Libbey, Sc.D., and Franklin E. Hoskins, D.D. Illustrated. In 2 vols. 5¾×9 in. $6, net.

These volumes, superbly illustrated with a unique series of full-page photographs, are the record of the first American party that has succeeded in exploring, under the sanction and care of the Turkish Government, a fascinating but, till their venture, a forbidden region. While the country west of the Jordan has been so often and so carefully explored that now it is not easy to add to what is known of it, the eastward side of the valley has been but poorly known. Its intending explorers have for many years been hindered and intercepted by the Government. In the present case the bars were let down through the influence of Dr. Hoskins with the authorities at Damascus, and a Government escort through the perilous region was obtained. There successive civilizations have strewn the land with the marvelously preserved remains here photographed. Kerak, in Moab, shows the finest extant ruin of the Crusaders' kingdom, their passionately defended frontier fortress. Jerash, in the Decapolis, possesses a better specimen of a classic Greek city than any found in Greece. The most remarkable geographical curiosity on earth is found at Madeba in a mosaic map, a surprising revelation of the extent and wealth of trans-Jordanic Christianity in the early centuries. In the mountains of Edom and the plains of Moab are some of the best specimens of the Roman power in its roads and camps. But Petra, the objective point of the expedition, "set in the mountains of mystery," with its dwellings, temples, and tombs hewn in cliffs of many-colored sandstone, is the most extraordinary and most gorgeous ruin on the earth. In this capital of ancient Edom, its cathedral city, with sacred relics of the centuries before the Hebrew monarchy, where few travelers have been so fortunate as to be allowed to linger over night, our Americans spent five days. In 1869–70 that singularly gifted British explorer, Professor E. H. Palmer, visited Petra, and devoted half a dozen pages to it in "The Desert of the Exodus." In the present work over two hundred copiously illustrated pages have set the mark for future explorers to outdo. From Petra, rounding the southern end of the Dead Sea, the party reached Jerusalem in forty-one days from Beirut, thirty-four of which were spent in the forbidden land. Their geological observations there obtained new memoranda and suggest some change of theory. Apart from its scientific and antiquarian interest, their narrative is enlivened with incident, adventure, and humor. It is the story of an achievement which their countrymen and their Alma Mater at Princeton may regard with justifiable pride.

Justice in Colonial Virginia. By Oliver Perry Chitwood. (Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. XXIII.) The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore. 5¾×9½ in. 123 pages.

Life of George R. Smith, Founder of Sedalia, Mo. By Samuel Bannister Harding, Ph.D. 5¼×8¼ in. 398 pages.

Maria Sophia, Queen of Naples. By Clara Tschudi. Translated from the Norwegian by Ethel Harriet Hearn. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5¾×9 in. 232 pages. $2.50.

This author has already made notable contributions to our understanding of history in recounting the lives of certain royal women—Marie Antoinette, Eugénie, Augusta, Elizabeth. We are now informed as to Maria Sophia, ex-Queen of Naples. She lives in Paris and is the heroine of Daudet's "Rois

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en Exil." She is a princess of the Bavarian royal house of Wittelsbach. Her sisters were the late Empress of Austria and the Comtesse d'Alençon, two royal personages who met recent and tragic deaths. Maria Sophia's life has been a tragedy too. We are told about it in not too picturesque phrase, and in sometimes slovenly style—but this may be due to the translator rather than to the author. The account as a whole, however, cannot help being as dramatic as it is sympathetic. Nor do these qualities keep it from being, as we believe, conscientious, impartial, and reliable.

Missions from the Modern View. By Robert A. Hume, of Ahmednagar, India. With an Introduction by Charles Cuthbert Hall. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. $1, net.

We can best describe this book by transcribing the "Author's Note." "The first six chapters of this book consist of lectures which were delivered at Andover Theological Seminary, the University of Chicago, the Chicago Theological Seminary, and Bangor Theological Seminary. The last two chapters are exact illustrations of how I have given the Christian message to Indians." The first six chapters probably constitute the most valuable portion of the book. They are a sympathetic interpretation of Hinduism by one who has lived for years in India, who has not merely sympathy but respect for the Hindus and for their religious thought, and whose general spirit is represented by the title of one of his lectures, "What Christianity Has to Gain from Contact with the East." These lectures would be good reading for the narrow and ill-informed men who imagine that all missionaries go to foreign lands equipped with contempt for all pagan religions, and devoted to the purpose of destroying those religions and substituting another in their place; men who cannot rise to the conception that there is such a thing as commerce in ideas and in experiences as well as in material products, and that in our Christian ideals we have something to give to India and to China that will be more valuable to them than our cotton cloth, our bicycles, and our locomotives. But if the first six lectures constitute the most valuable, the last two constitute the most interesting, portion of this volume. The message of the Christian missionary, and indeed of the Christian minister both at home and abroad, we have never seen better defined than in this imaginary conversation between the missionary and a Hindu carpenter: "I would ask, 'What is your business?' and he might reply, 'I am a carpenter.' Then I might say, 'Let me tell you my business. It is to help men to become acquainted with God.' This makes him look surprised, because he has never heard of such an occupation before. Then I might ask, 'Gangaram, are you acquainted with God?' Of course he looks as surprised as if I had asked, 'Are you acquainted with the Queen or the Governor?' Then I say, 'Gangaram, I am somewhat acquainted with God. It is my business to help men to get acquainted with him. I will explain it to you so that you can understand.'" Probably the real reason why so many in our day do not believe in Christian missions is that either they do not care to get acquainted with God, or they do not think it possible to do so. But he would be very dull, both intellectually and spiritually, who could not understand this business of teaching men how to get acquainted with God, after reading Dr. Hume's explanation to Gangaram.

Morphology of the Hupa Language (The). By Pliny Earle Goddard. (University of California Publications.) The University Press, Berkeley, California. 7×10¾ in. 344 pages. $3.50.

Mottoes and Badges of Families, Regiments, Schools, Colleges, States, Towns, Livery Companies, Societies, Etc., British and Foreign. By W. S. W. Anson. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 3½×4 in. 192 pages. 50c.

Notes on British Refuse Destructors, with an Introductory Comparison of British Refuse Destructors and American Garbage Furnaces. By M. N. Baker, Ph.B., C.E. The Engineering News Publishing Co., New York. 4¼×7 in. 58 pages.

Ordeal by Music: The Tale of Akoya. By Gensai Murai. Rendered into English by Unkichi Kawai. With Illustrations by Kwasar Suzaki. Published by the Hochi Shimbun, Tokyo, Japan.

This is an interesting illustration of Japanese imagination, as characteristic in literature as the Japanese pictures are in art. The plot turns upon the endeavor of a shrewd but magnanimous officer to ascertain whether the heroine of the story knows her lover's hiding-place. He refuses to allow her to be tortured, and instead bids her play and sing to him. "Music," he says, "dredges the soul's deep sea. Most delicate melodies come only from a calm heart; perfect harmony can be produced only by a hand serene and unstained. If aught of wrong or crime be hidden in her heart, she cannot display the delicacy of tune. All the beating of her heart will vibrate in the thirteen strings, and reveal the secret therein. This is my instrument of trial, even more powerful than rod or lash." How this test was applied, how the woman's courage kept her calm so that she did not discover her secret, and how finally the lover disclosed himself, the story tells in a style as charming as it is simple. The English is excellent. Unfortunately, the title-page does not tell where in America the book can be obtained.

Outlines of Christian Apologetics: For Use in Lectures. By Hermann Schultz, Ph.D. Authorized Translation from the Second Enlarged Edition (1902). By Alfred Bull Nichols. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5¼×8 in. $1.75, net.

This work of the veteran scholar of Göttingen is distinguished from most works of its kind by its entire freedom from espousal to any of the creeds. He holds that no such foundation, and no miracle except "the great spiritual miracle" of his own personality, the fact of his unique religious life, was made by Jesus the basis of his Church. "The defense of the perfection of the Christian revelation," says Professor Schultz, "must not base

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itself primarily on the argument that certain historical events in ancient times have by their supernatural character shown themselves to be revelations of God, but on the fact that the self-communication of God in the person of Christ, that is always open to our examination, approves itself to us by its very nature as the full revelation of the divine, not as a theoretic ideal, but as an inspiring reality. Christ himself is the apology of Christianity, not the various historical incidents of his earthly life. . . . Jesus' life is the life of God himself among men without any admixture of egoistic aims." Yet the sinlessness of Jesus is held to be a doctrine that cannot be historically maintained of a life only a fragment of which is historically known, merely "a dogmatic doctrine, an inference that thought makes from faith's experience of the influence of Jesus," as one who was "parted by no worldly interests of his individual will from the loving will of God." The freedom from dogmatic bias with which this crucial point is treated is characteristic of Professor Schultz throughout. His argument for Christianity is the superstructure reared on a broad foundation laid, first, in a defense of the religious view of the world, and, next, in the philosophy of religion derived from the historical phenomena exhibited in "nature religions," "culture religions," and "prophet religions." Thus the course of thought leads up to Christianity as "the world religion in which the religious and prophetic spirit of Shem is united to the philosophic and civilizing spirit of Japhet." Thoroughly scientific, and therefore failing to meet the requirements of orthodoxy, Professor Schultz's apologetic is certainly evangelical in the best sense. Over against the "ruinous one-sidedness" of which he accuses intellectualism in the forms of orthodoxy and rationalism, he sets the "genuine evangelical Christianity," which "can beget a theology that can suffer all true sciences beside it without forfeiting any of its own rights."

Outlook to Nature (The). By L. H. Bailey. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 296 pages. $1.25, net.

"The outlook to nature is, of course, the outlook to optimism . . . to what is real, and hearty, and spontaneous." This might well stand as the text for the sermon which Professor Bailey preaches exhorting the return to nature. It also well describes the spirit of his exhortations, which are hearty, spontaneous, and optimistic, and full of the love of nature which he wants all the world to share.

Principles of Rhetoric (The): With Constructive and Critical Work in Composition. By Elizabeth H. Spalding, A.B. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 275 pages.

This book is noteworthy because of the directness, simplicity, and thoroughness with which its material is presented. It considers rhetorical theory and provides exercises for its application. It furnishes many illustrative extracts from good writers, and introduces some student composition as a basis for critical and reconstructive work. It contains also many lists of subjects for composition, grouped according to their adaptability for use in working out various literary problems, and contains a helpful chapter on "The Correlation of English and Library Work." Best of all, it holds enough of its author's enthusiasm for pupils who use it to feel that rhetoric is an interesting and practical study. Through the criticism of the imperfect but somewhat skillful student composition already referred to, the pupil's attention is directed to errors often made by beginners (not to gross and unusual blunders) in a manner that is pretty sure to incite, rather than to discourage, endeavor. We agree, moreover, with the author, that "this student material is especially serviceable aside from the fact that it gives opportunities for criticism and reconstruction." For, to quote again, "The very admiration that a pupil feels for Wordsworth or Browning, for Burke or Macaulay, makes him feel his own comparative impotence, with a consequent sense of discouragement; but let him hear what one of his peers—a boy like himself—has written, in an honest and more or less skillful way, and he is eager to try something of the same sort himself. The masterpieces are still before him as models."

Religion of Israel (The). By R. L. Ottley. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 227 pages.

Mr. Ottley modestly terms his work a "sketch," but it is well drawn, and puts much into a small volume in clear as well as concise form. His general position in historical criticism may be indicated by saying that he regards Moses as the first real personage in the story of Hebrew beginnings, and the picture of the patriarchal age as reflecting the beliefs and customs of more civilized times. What he is most concerned to make evident is the steady development of moral and religious ideas that distinguished Israel from other nations, and evinced divine guidance by progress toward divine ideals. His divergences from other scholars, with whom in the main he accords, show the independence of his work. It is a desirable companion to his "Short History of the Hebrews," published four years ago, and strongly commended by The Outlook at that time.

Russia. By Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O. (New and Much Enlarged Edition, Revised and in Great Part Rewritten.) Henry Holt & Co., New York. 6¼×9¾ in. 672 pages. $5.

Reserved for later notice.

Select Translations from Scaliger's Poetics. By Frederick Morgan Padelford, Ph.D. (Yale Studies in English, XXVI.) Henry Holt & Co., New York. 5½×9 in. 96 pages.

Silly Syclopedia (The). By Noah Lott. Illustrated by Louis F. Grant. The G. W. Dillingham Co., New York. 4¼×7½ in. 159 pages.

Southern Literary Messenger, 1834–1864 (The). By Benjamin Blake Minor, LL.D. The Neale Publishing Co., New York. 5½×8¼ in. 252 pages. $2.

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Special Method in Language: In the Eight Grades. By Charles A. McMurry, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 192 pages. 70c.

Storm of London (The). By F. Dickberry. Herbert B. Turner & Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 314 pages. $1.50.

Story of the Merchant of Venice from the Play of Shakespeare. Retold by Alice Spencer Hoffman. Illustrated. E. P Dutton & Co., New York. 4×5½ in. 91 pages. 60c.

Struggle for Life (A): Higher Criticism Criticised. By Rev. John Langtry, M.A., D.C.L. Author's Edition. 29 Richmond Street, W., Toronto. 5¼×8 in. 328 pages.

Dr. Langtry frankly avows that his attitude toward the higher criticism is "one of avowed and unhesitating hostility." His contention is, in general, that its representatives have not based their conclusions on facts or historical evidence, but have evolved them from their "inner consciousness." He holds that it originated in the English Deism of the seventeenth century, and is infected with its hereditary taint as the foe of supernatural religion. That Dr. Langtry has not reached his conclusions by the light of an unbiased and impartial mind is clear from his naïve confession that he was for a time "afraid to touch it [the critics' work], lest he might find the boasted light and learning unanswerable." At the basis of this and similar works is a fallacious and misleading conception of the supernatural.

Supremacy of the Bible (The). By J. Mercier McMullen. Thomas Whittaker, New York. 5¼×8½ in. 479 pages. $2, net.

The higher critics, whom the author treats severely in the latter part of his work, can afford to wait till he has settled the account which the first part of it opens with the astronomers and the geologists, whose doctrines he considers inimical to the authority of the Bible. His idea of the universe is that it is a vast hollow globe or sphere, the concave side of which is studded with stars. His idea of the tilted, folded, and fractured strata of the earth is that such conditions were caused by the miraculous elevation and depression of the crust, so that the Noachian deluge might submerge the whole surface of the globe. It is strange that such a book should be written. It is stranger that the official organ of a religious denomination credited with possessing learned men should advise the clergy and laity to read it as a defense of their faith.

Taper Lights. (The second edition of "Why Love Grows Cold.") By Ellen Burns Sherman. The Gordon-Flagg Co., Springfield, Mass. 5×7¾ in. 253 pages. $1, net.

This book was reviewed from the first edition in The Outlook for July 15.

Text-Book of Sociology (A). By James Quayle Dealey, Ph.D., and Lester Frank Ward, LL.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 326 pages. $1.30.

Dr. Ward's sociological writings, especially his large volume on "Pure Sociology," have supplied the material for this presentation of the elements of the subject. It makes an ambitious claim for sociology as "the science of sciences," a claim symptomatic of some loose thinking here and there, as in the definition of "final cause" as "the utilization of means to an end." If "the subject matter of sociology is human achievement . . . not what men are, but what they do"—if this is all, then one wonders how sociology differs from history. However, this rather questionable beginning issues in a more satisfactory conclusion. Civilization is not the final word, but socialization. It is acutely pointed out that collectivism is not the opposite of individualism that it is fancied to be. Individualism cannot have free play unless the power of society secures for it an open door. Just this, which not all individuals have now, is what collectivism proposes to secure for all. "Pure sociology," however, does not concern itself with how this is to be effected, but simply with all human activities as actual phenomena. It is therefore a wide field that is traversed here under the lead of a stimulating if not always convincing teacher. When Dr. Ward tells us that "man is not *naturally* a social being," that the efforts of the Peace Society are blind to "cosmic principles," that "all true forces are in themselves essentially centrifugal and destructive," that mysticism is "a sort of disease due to sexual cerebration," that "deception may almost be called the foundation of business," he risks some loss of confidence on the layman's part in his precision in matters of "pure" sociology.

Truths Leaf by Leaf. By Rev. David Swing. Edited by Sophie Burt Kimball. The Lakeside Press, Chicago. 5¾×8½ in. 237 pages.

When proceedings against David Swing for heresy resulted in his quitting the Presbyterian Church, thirty years ago, and forming the Central Congregational Church in Chicago, it was a clear gain both for preacher and people. His sermons, attractive in their breadth of view and depth of feeling, and distinguished by their literary quality, drew congregations with an unusually large proportion of men, and were regularly printed in his weekly paper, the "Alliance." The present volume draws its contents from "his most mature and last unpublished writings." Characterizations of the beloved preacher by his like-minded successors, Drs. Hillis and Gunsaulus, supply the personal element required for an adequate memorial.

War of the Classes. By Jack London. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4½×7 in. 278 pages. 25c.

A cheap and neat edition of a book on which we have already commented.

Who Was He? A Concise Dictionary of General Biography. By Edward Latham. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 2½×2½in. 161 pages. 50c.

Why I Did Not Become a Protestant After I Left the Catholic Church. By John Hunkey. Printed by the Author, Atchison, Kansas. 4½×6¾ in. 91 pages. 15c.

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Letters addressed to the Editors of The Outlook, to receive any attention whatever, must in all cases be accompanied by the name and address of the writer. Names will not be published if a request to that effect is made by the writer, but no attention, either personal or editorial, can be paid to anonymous communications.

A Remarkable Meeting in Seoul, Korea

To the Editors of The Outlook:

The Young Men's Christian Association of Seoul, Korea, is unique among kindred organizations. It has a membership of about four hundred, drawn from the young men of high class and that group of enlightened members of the community who are attempting to lead the nation in reform and modern education. Coming at this time in the history of Korea, when Western ideals and institutions are popular, and combining the abovementioned classes in its membership, it exerts an influence which is broad in nature and far-reaching in extent. Recently fifty-five of the highest officials in Seoul gathered in the rooms of the Association to hear addresses by the American Minister, Dr. H. N. Allen; the Hon. Yun-Chi-Ho, Acting Minister of Foreign Affairs; and Dr. James S. Gale, President of the Association. Among those present were one ex-Prime Minister, eight members of the Imperial Cabinet, six Provincial Governors, two Generals of the army, the Chief Judge of the Supreme Court, the Commissioner-in-Chief of Korean Customs, and many Vice-Ministers and Chief Secretaries of the various departments of the Korean Government.

The following address (delivered in the Korean language) was given by Dr. James S. Gale. It is of especial interest as revealing something of the Korean mind, and its attitude of superiority yet of helplessness and ignorance in the presence of the Western nations:

A hundred years ago the nations of the world lived apart and looked at each other. Each knew his neighbor only from a distance, and was doubtful and suspicious. It took four months for news to travel from Europe to the Far East, and just as long for it to return. In those days the world was too wide to measure, and men could not possibly get acquainted with each other. Only distant rumors came of strange beings living in far-off lands. But to-day, behold how it has changed! What took four months at that time does not take a month, nor a day, nor an hour, but a few moments will flash word from one side of the world to the other. We know all that goes on in Europe, in America, in Africa, the day it happens. What was once such a wide world has, through the Englishman's discovery of steam, shortened up, and, through the American's discovery of electricity, become not one nation or town or village, but one small family. It is to-day as if Japan and Russia were fighting out in the courtyard, for even the women in the inner quarters know what is going on. We see it all, right before our eyes, and the rest of the world sees it, too. How different from a hundred years ago! We were then widely separated nations who did not know each other, but now we sit side by side as one family.

In the family, let us say, there are four children. One is designated Yellow, one Black, one Red, and one White. This is the household; one family grouped together to-day. Now, who has the place of honor in the group? Who is the oldest son? The Yellow man, of course. He has lived longest, studied books most, and stayed closest at home. About the Red and Black children? They have made a poor showing at life; we cannot really dignify them with the names of sons. Since they have been next to good for nothing, let us call them daughters (applause from the Far East). And then there is the White lad. He is the youngest—a restless being. So we have in the family the Yellow child, the Red child, the Black child, and the White child. Now, just a glance at their characters. The oldest son—the Yellow man—has remained close at home all these years; of course, to look after his parents. He has been for four thousand years on his knees studying away at the Chinese character. He has never been away from home, and does not know about the world, but he is the oldest son just the same, and knows all the forms of ceremony. The Red daughter has proven an ill-mannered wench, running all over the hills in the chase, sometimes out in the fields, again farming. She knows nothing, but that makes no difference, since she is only a girl. The Black daughter has been in the kitchen in the smoke till her face is the color of a rice-kettle. She is a girl, too, and her looks do not count. As for the White son, he, the rascal, has been away from home all these years, wandering the wide earth over, peering into this, learning that, seeing how mortals live, what they think, what they worship, what they do. He has not real cultivated manners according to the classics, nor has he any special ability, but he has seen and heard a world of things, and has had a wide experience. Now he has come home once more, and he is living with his sisters and his big Yellow brother. To the surprise of every one, he is beginning to tell his Red and Black sisters what goes on in the world, and, would you think it, they are beginning to learn! These daughters that were thought hopeless have also minds and sons, and may some day brush up and prove life worth living.

But never mind about the sisters; here is the Yellow brother, the oldest of the family, and the White lad's ambition now is to win his big brother's trust and confidence. Of course he can't be his teacher; a younger brother can't teach an older; but still he can tell him what he has seen and heard in his far journeys. This is what he wants to do. He wants to win his big brother's heart, his love and confidence; to sit down by his side, where they can read and talk and study together, and to tell him how he loves him, and of all the best that he knows and has seen.

This is the object of the Young Men's Christian Association, where the White man can take his place by his brother of the Orient, win his heart, his love, his confidence, and tell him of what is best and noblest and truest in this wide household of ours. **

Wanted—A Law

To the Editors of The Outlook:

In The Outlook of Saturday, June 10, 1905, there is an article entitled "Wanted in Pennsylvania—A Man"—in substance, wanted, a

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man to destroy the power of the Pennsylvania Republican political combine. It is a plaintive and despondent cry. It cries aloud for a man—"He who is to be the savior of Pennsylvania." It is the same crying aloud of the people that is going up every day from one or more States or municipalities of these United States, and from one or more nations of the earth, asking to be relieved from the power, oppression, and tyranny of self-constituted and irresponsible rulers. One might as well cry, Wanted on earth—A Man, to run it. There is no difference between a czar, king, despot, shogun, or a political boss. Neither rules by right of the will of the people. Each is only a representative of a "ring" of self-constituted power, obeyed and acquiesced in by the passive and thoughtless millions.

Pennsylvania wants something besides "A Man." She wants a political machine for the people—a law complementing the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States, a law abolishing nominating conventions and authorizing the people, by their direct ballot, to name all candidates to be voted for by them for official positions. That is all Pennsylvania wants—liberty and freedom to the fullest extent of the word in choosing candidates for official positions. That is all the people want.

Away with the delegate and the convention-nomination system, the source of all political evils and corruption! As long as you license a system destructive of good government—one that begets and develops vicious legislation bosses and plum-tree shakers—how can you expect one man, no matter how incorruptible, able, energetic, and wealthy he may be, to control the sharp, shrewd, unscrupulous, corrupt office-seekers and politicians?

We talk and write about this reform, or that reform, in every branch of public service. We talk and write about the corruption of this Legislature or of that Legislature, and the rottenness of this or that municipality—then comes a political spasm, out go the bosses of one ring, and in comes another ring and its fresh, hungry set of bosses.

"A Man" for Pennsylvania, or for Kansas, may frighten the vultures at the carcass, that is all. That is not what is wanted. There is wanted a law in every State in the Union creating a system, or rather a political machine, that can be run only by the whole people—the means to secure the individual impressions of each voter in regard to the nominees of his party, to the fullest extent of his own personality, directly and secretly—that is democratic—that is a government of the people, by the people, and that inherent and inalienable right can be obtained only through an effective law of Direct Nomination of all candidates for office by voters at Public Nomination elections.

The attention of the writer of the article "Wanted—A Man" is called to an article published in the June "Arena" of 1898 for a partial exposition of the principles of a direct primary law, one established in this Jackson County, State of Kansas, in the year 1878, and successfully followed every year since. I take the liberty of inclosing herewith a copy of a bill which was drafted in 1892, and was reported from the Committee on Elections to the Kansas State Senate in 1893, to forward, if you please, to the writer of "Wanted in Pennsylvania—A Man." Did that "bill" become a law? No, sir. In opposition to it were all the holders of public franchises, rights, and privileges—the leaders and bosses of every political organization, their attachés and dependents, the grafters and their clamorous hordes. How could it become a law? Give the people a simple, direct nomination law, and popular government pure and incorruptible can be maintained; without it, anarchy, or "A Man."

JOHN S. HOPKINS.

Holton, Kansas.

Municipal Ownership and Socialism

To the Editors of The Outlook:

I have for many years given much thought to this subject without being able until lately to arrive at any plan that seemed satisfactory and workable; but it now occurs to me that the following might be practicable.

To secure economy and honesty in any undertaking, it is always necessary that those who pay the expenses should control the methods of doing business. On the other hand, to secure satisfactory service, it is necessary that those who are to be benefited should have control. In both cases the control must be as direct and clear as possible, with the least opportunity for any party with special or personal interest to interfere, directly or indirectly.

Therefore it would be a good plan, where the city owns the gas-works, to lease them, with satisfactory terms stated in the lease, to a company controlled by a board of directors in the same way private business and manufacturing corporations are governed. The directors should be elected every four years by the parties who subscribe for the gas, the elections to be held at the same time and place as general elections are held, but separate tickets must be used, and there must be separate judges, clerks, and ballot-boxes. The directors need have only small salaries, if any. They should not be expected or permitted to do the work of the corporation, or hold any other city or company office drawing a salary or controlling patronage.

The directors should be required carefully to select and employ all the necessary general salaried officers, this selection being upon a basis of practical efficiency, considering both technical skill and special experience. The general officers so employed should run the works, do all the business, and select their own employees. In this selection the directors should not be allowed in any way to interfere, on penalty of being removed from office.

The lease should require the company to

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see that the works are managed so as to give the best results with the least expenditure, and to place the rate as low as practicable to pay expenses. From the income they should pay the city, or the bondholders of the city, reasonable interest on the cost of the plant (probably five per cent.), keep the works in good repair, and, when necessary, to replace, from a sufficient sinking fund, the works or parts thereof. When the income is not sufficient to pay these items and running expenses, the manager must raise the rate.

When extensions are made, they should be paid for by the city, or by issuing bonds, and the cost should be added to the amount on which the manager must pay interest. If the terms of the lease are not complied with, it may be terminated under the statute for the breach of covenants.

Socialism is a bad thing, and we are steadily drifting toward it; but the best minds hope that before it is reached we may find something better. This plan may illustrate one of these better things. It would apply as well to water and electrical works and telephone systems.

JAMES MONTGOMERY RICE.

Peoria, Illinois.

The Tenderfoot's Bed

To the Editors of The Outlook:

Elisabeth Woodbridge's sprightly and natural "On a Connecticut Stillwater," in your delightful Recreation Number, will charm many an outdoor liver, and no doubt allure others to go and do likewise. In one particular, however, the tenderfoot will not, I hope, follow Jonathan's example, if the tenderfoot's bed is to be made of the boughs of the balsam fir. Jonathan began at the head of his bed and laid his hemlock boughs with their tips toward the head. Now, I have never made a camp bed of hemlock boughs, and therefore I cannot speak from experience of such procedure with material from that species of tree; but thirty summers of camp life on the White Hills of New Hampshire ought to warrant my saying that if one does not wish to be prodded and ridged by his couch he begins to lay his boughs at what is to be its foot and places them, layer after layer, under side up and butt of stem toward the head of the bed. At least, he will proceed in this way if he is using the boughs of the fragrant balsam fir. When he wishes to renew his bed, he will also begin at its foot and stick the butts of the fresh boughs down into the now flattened couch, inclining their tips at an angle of 45° or less toward its foot and not toward its head. In this way he increases the natural springiness of an originally well-laid bed of balsam fir. On such a bed I slept in perfect comfort one hundred and eleven nights last year, averaging over nine hours of continuous sleep per night.

Queerly enough, the only camper I ever have met who laid balsam fir beds the other way was a Connecticut man! It wasn't difficult to convert him to the right way. The converted boughs did that. W. G. N.

The Log Cabin, Randolph, New Hampshire.

Cool Slumber

To the Editors of The Outlook:

I have been interested in the surmises of the author of "The Top Layer of New York" as to when the custom of using the roof of New York tenements for sleeping and recreation began. It probably began before my own day, but from 1861 to 1863 the undersigned, then a boy between twelve and fifteen years, frequently slept on the roof of 54 Spring Street, New York—a six-story tenement containing twenty-four families; among them my mother with her two sons; with a tenement in the rear, but a few feet distant, containing ten or more families. There were four families on every floor of 54 Spring Street, and it was a treat in the stifling summer weather to take my blanket and pillow and sleep coolly and safely in the sea breeze, which we could feel from that height. Other occupants of the house also availed of the roof.

I remember standing on this roof during the Draft Riots of New York in 1863, and watching the many fires started by the rioters in different parts of the city. I have enjoyed much better accommodations since; in fact, from time to time, the best the world could offer; but I have no doubt that the cool slumbers secured on the top of that roof helped to keep me in the world.

M. H. S.

ERRATA.—In the article on William James Rolfe, printed in The Outlook's Educational Number (July 22), an error occurs in the last paragraph but one. By substituting in the last sentence of that paragraph the word "simpler" for "ampler" the author's actual meaning is expressed. On page 752 of the same article, for "poet-lore," which refers to a quarterly magazine not so well known as it deserves to be, read "Poet-Lore." The excellent "First Folio" edition of Shakespeare's plays, edited by Miss Porter and Miss Clarke, editors of "Poet-Lore," is published by Crowell & Co., *not* by the American Book Company, who publish Dr. Rolfe's edition. Another minor correction may be made by substituting in the fourth line of page 752 the word "with" for "by."—THE EDITORS.

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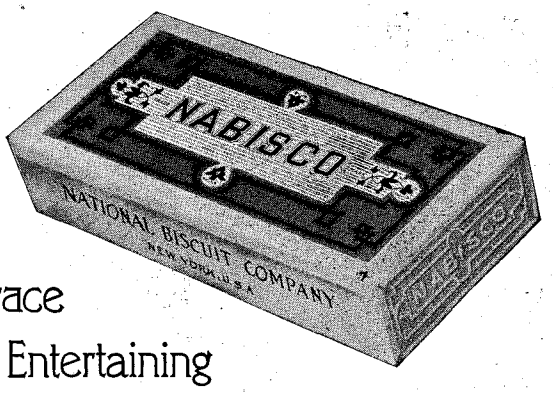

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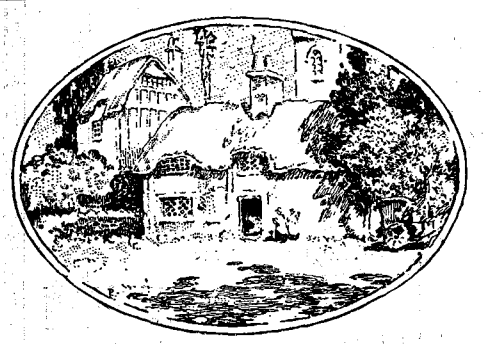

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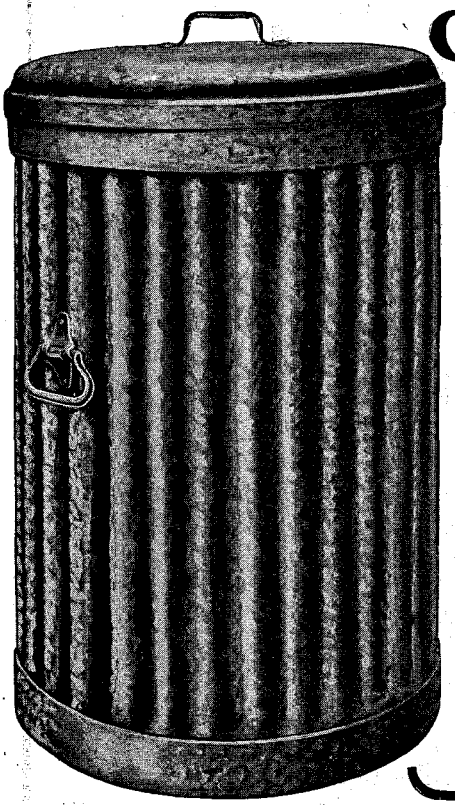

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